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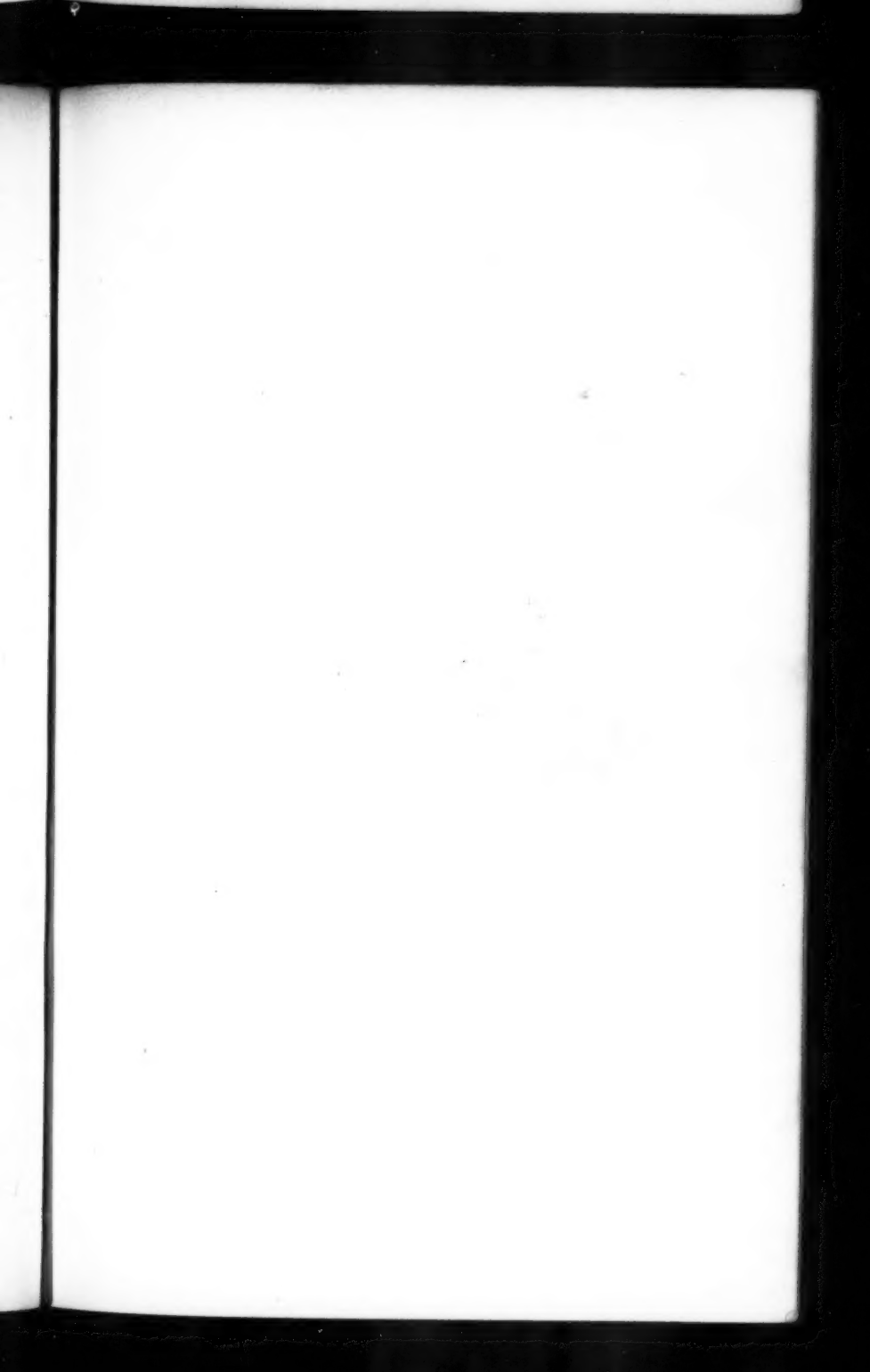
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Engd by Geo E. Perkins N.Y.

*S. L. Randall*

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## L. SAMUEL S. RANDALL,

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

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SAMUEL S. RANDALL, who for more than a quarter of a century, has been connected with the administration of the system of Common Schools in the State of New York, was born May 27, 1809, at Norwich, Chenango County. After passing through the ordinary district schools of the neighborhood, he was transferred to Oxford Academy in 1823, and, having been fitted for college under the tuition of Rev. Dr. Andrews, now of Binghamton, entered Hamilton College in 1824, then under the presidency of the Rev. Dr. Davis. At the end of the Sophomore year, he left that institution to prosecute the study of the law in the office of Messrs. Clark & Clapp, at Norwich, and in 1830, was admitted to the bar, and practiced the profession for several years in his native town.

In May 1837, Mr. Randall was appointed by the Secretary of State and *ex-officio* Superintendent of Common Schools, Gen. Dix, as a clerk in the department of Common Schools. Gen. Dix was at that time engaged in the preparation and publication of a volume of "*Common School Decisions and Laws*," and this, together with the correspondence of the department, and the examination and decision of appeal cases from the several school districts, required the active services of an efficient clerk, who acted under his constant dictation. During this period, the District Library System was inaugurated and carried into effect. In 1839, Gen. Dix was superseded in the charge of the department by the Hon. John C. Spencer, who immediately upon his accession, with that indefatigable energy, industry, and perseverance, which so eminently characterized him, entered upon the task of a complete revision and modification of the Common School System, in which he was essentially aided by Mr. Randall, whose services were retained under the new organization. By the provisions of the new act, drawn up by Mr. Spencer, and which passed the legislature in 1840, the Superintendent was authorized to appoint a General Deputy, and the Board of Supervisors of the respective counties in the State, were required to appoint

Deputy or County Superintendents, who, under the direction of the State Superintendent were charged with the visitation and examination of schools, the licensing of teachers, and the hearing and decision in the first instance of appeals. Mr. Randall was appointed General Deputy Superintendent, and charged with the general correspondence of the department, which had now become very voluminous, and the examination of cases on appeal from the decision of the County Superintendents. During the administration of Mr. Spencer, the "*District School Journal*," edited by Francis Dwight, Esq., was transferred from Geneva to Albany, and Mr. Randall became a frequent contributor to, and subsequently an associate editor until the death of Mr. Dwight, when the entire conduct of the Journal passed into his hands. In 1842, Mr. Spencer having been appointed by President Tyler, Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Randall became acting Superintendent, and continued to discharge the duties of that position until the election of the Hon. Samuel Young, in the ensuing year. Col. Young immediately on his accession appointed Mr. Randall General Deputy Superintendent, devolving upon him, without restriction, the entire charge of the department; and although differing in the outset with his predecessors as to the expediency and policy of continuing the County Superintendent System, was induced by Mr. Randall to give the system a fair trial and examination, which resulted in a strong conviction of its excellence and value, and an unalterable determination to sustain and carry it into effect. Under his administration, and through the agency of the County Superintendents, comprising some of the ablest and most intelligent men of the State, the system of public instruction attained an efficiency which has never since been surpassed, or even equaled. The State Normal School was established and organized; the several districts were thoroughly visited, the teachers subjected to a rigid examination, county institutes held, local dissensions and controversies equitably and speedily settled, State conventions of County Superintendents held; and energy, vigor, and progress infused into the entire system. Col. Young was succeeded in 1845, by N. S. Benton, Esq., of Herkimer, who continued Mr. Randall in the position he had so long held, the duties of which he continued to perform until the autumn of 1846, when he was compelled by failing health, induced by his severe and unremitting labors, to resign the position and spend a few years in a southern clime for the recovery of his exhausted physical energies. The following extract from Hammond's "*Political History of New York*," will serve to show the high appreciation of Mr. Randall's services

and character, recorded by this eminent statesman and enlightened friend of education:—

"In framing this bill," referring to the amended Common School Act of 1842, "Mr. SPENCER was powerfully aided by his Deputy Superintendent, S. S. RANDALL, Esq., one of the most worthy and excellent of men, who was himself competent to preside over any educational bureau in the United States. A deep debt of gratitude is due from the people of this State to this talented and zealous friend of popular education for his services in that great and good cause. He was by profession and in principle, a Whig, and was brought into the department while the government was administered by the Whigs; but Col. YOUNG, notwithstanding, when he became Secretary of State, retained him in office. Mr. YOUNG, it is true, was an ardent politician; but this noble act proves that with him, the cause of popular education was paramount to all others. It is deeply to be regretted that the state of Mr. Randall's health has compelled him to abandon the office and migrate from the State."

During his sojourn at the South, Mr. Randall visited the principal towns and cities, lecturing on the subject of education at Washington, Richmond, Leesburg, and other places. In 1840, he was recalled to the position he had formerly occupied in the school department, by the Hon. Christopher Morgan, who had succeeded Mr. Benton, and resumed the entire charge of the system, which he continued to administer until the end of Mr. Morgan's term.\* In the struggle which chiefly characterized this period, for the establishment of the Free School system, Mr. Randall took an active and decided part; and it was to a very great extent owing to his personal and indefatigable exertions that this great measure was finally carried through all the forms of legislation, and became the settled policy of the state. At the termination of this contest, and of Mr. Morgan's administration, Mr. Randall again resigned his position, and took up his residence at Washington, where he was tendered an appointment in the War Department, which he held until November, 1853, when he accepted the appointment of City Superintendent of the Public Schools of Brooklyn. This position, however, he held only for a few weeks, when he was again, and for the third time, recalled to the State department by Superintendent Leavenworth, in January, 1854. Soon afterwards the legislature passed an act, on the special recommendation of Mr. Leavenworth,

\* The legislature having passed an Act authorizing a revision and consolidation of all the school laws into one act, Gov. Hunt appointed Mr. Randall as a Commissioner for this purpose, who accordingly at the ensuing session discharged the duty thus devolved upon him.



and his predecessor in office, Hon. (H. S. Randall,) separating the supervision of common schools from the office of Secretary of State and organizing it as an independent department. Mr. Randall became a candidate for the head of this department, but was defeated by the Hon. Victor M. Rice, the present incumbent; and after remaining for a few months, and assisting Mr. Rice, as his deputy, in the organization of the new department, he was appointed in the summer of 1854, City Superintendent of Public Schools in the city of New York, to which position he has been four times unanimously re-elected, and which he still (1863) continues to hold.

Mr. Randall commenced his career in the common school department at about the same period that HORACE MANN, entered upon the discharge of his duties as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts, and Henry Barnard, as State Superintendent of Connecticut, and afterwards of Rhode Island. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York, gave the first great impulse to those efforts in behalf of popular education, which have subsequently extended over almost the entire area of the free states of our Union. In conjunction with these fellow-laborers, with the late lamented Col. Young, John C. Spencer, David P. Page, and Francis Dwight, and such men as Bishop Potter, of Pennsylvania, Henry S. Randall, of Courtland, William F. Phelps, of New Jersey, and Messrs. Bulkley and Valentine, of Brooklyn, and other names identified with the cause of public instruction, he has spent the best years of his life in endeavoring to advance the intellectual and moral interests of the rising generation, and to diffuse the blessings of education broadcast over the land.

From the accession of Mr. Spencer to the Superintendency of the School Department; through all the subsequent administrations of Col. Young, Mr. Benton, Mr. Morgan, and Mr. Leavenworth, Mr. Randall actually conducted all the business pertaining to that department; and with very rare exceptions, all the correspondence of the department, the preparation of the annual reports to the legislature, the decision of cases on appeal, the apportionment and payment of the public money, and the records of the office passed exclusively through his hands. It was not until after the department was separated from the office of Secretary of State, that any provision existed even for clerk-hire, and the labor now performed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Deputy Superintendent, and some half-dozen clerks, was then thrown upon him alone. In 1845, he compiled a digest of the Common School system and laws, with a history of its origin and progress, which passed through

two editions, and became the standard authority in all cases of controversy until the adoption of the Code of 1855, by which it was superseded. Through the columns of the "*District School Journal*," and by public lectures and addresses, he exerted a powerful influence in preparing the public mind for the adoption of the principle of Free Schools; and the organization of Normal Schools and Institutes for the preparation of teachers. His various annual reports since his appointment as City Superintendent of New York, will be found to embrace recommendations, suggestions, and arguments for most of these great features in the system of public instruction in that city, which have placed it on a footing of equality with, if not of superiority, over any system of public education in the United States. He has steadily resisted every effort to render its teachings sectarian or political, while assiduously inculcating christian morality and true patriotism. He has strenuously advocated additional facilities for the higher education of females; and normal instruction for the more perfect preparation of teachers. He has uniformly sought to discountenance the infliction of corporeal or other degrading chastisements as a means of school discipline, and urged the importance and necessity of a thorough and systematic physical intellectual and moral development and culture of the pupils of our public schools—the education of the whole being. In conducting the examinations of the several schools and classes under his supervision he has uniformly sought to awaken the mental energies of the pupils themselves, and to draw out from, rather than to communicate to them, the knowledge which they had been endeavoring to acquire; to accustom them to think and to reason for themselves, instead of depending, as is far too generally the case, upon the authority of others. In short, he has endeavored to the best of his ability, to incorporate with, and infuse into the system over which he presides, the ideas and principles of the best and most enlightened educators of the age.

## II. EDUCATION OF THE FEMALE SEX.

Who can find a virtuous woman? for her price is far above rubies.

The heart of her husband doth safely trust in her, so that he shall have no need of spoil.

She will do him good and not evil all the days of her life.

She seeketh wool and flax, and worketh willingly with her hands.

She is like the merchants' ships; she bringeth her food from afar.

She riseth also while it is yet night, and giveth meat to her household, and a portion to her maidens.

She considereth a field and buyeth it; with the fruit of her hands she planteth a vineyard.

She layeth her hands to the spindle, and her hands hold the distaff.

She stretcheth out her hands to the poor; yea, she reacheth forth her hands to the needy.

She is not afraid of the snow for her household; for all her household are clothed with double garments.

She maketh herself coverings of tapestry; her clothing is silk and purple.

Her husband is known in the gates, when he sitteth among the elders of the land.

Strength and honor are her clothing; and she shall rejoice in time to come.

She openeth her mouth with wisdom; and in her tongue is the law of kindness.

She looketh well to the ways of her household, and eateth not the bread of idleness.

Her children arise up and call her blessed; her husband also, and he praiseth her.

Favor is deceitful, and beauty is vain: but a woman that feareth the Lord, she shall be praised.

Give her of the fruit of her hands; and let her own works praise her in the gates.

A gracious woman retaineth honor.

A virtuous woman is a crown to her husband; but she that maketh ashamed is as rottenness in his bones.

A prudent wife is from the Lord. BIBLE, Proverbs.

Wives, submit yourselves unto your husbands, as unto the Lord.

For the husband is the head of the wife, even as Christ is the head of the church.

Therefore as the church is subject unto Christ, so let the wives be to their own husbands in everything.

Let your women keep silence in the churches.

That they may teach the young women to be sober, to love their husbands, to love their children, to be discreet, chaste, keepers at home, good, obedient to their own husbands, that the word of God may not be blasphemed. BIBLE; Eph., v; 22-24. 1 Cor., xiv; 34. Titus, ii; 4, 5.

The authority and dominion remain with the husband, for the wife, according to God's commandment, must be subject and obedient. The husband must govern the house and exercise authority, go to war, defend his property, plow, sow, build, plant, &c.

The wife, on the other hand, must sit at home and be busy in the house. Thus Venus was represented standing on a snail-shell, showing

that as the snail carries his house with him, so should the wife always be at home and be busied about the occupations of the house.

Among the first virtues of a wife is, that the heart of her husband shall trust in her; that is that he shall love her truly and wholly, shall anticipate no evil from her, but shall feel certain that she loves him in return, and that she will be careful of his comfort.

A pious wife should be honored and loved; first, because she is God's gift and bestowal; and secondly, because God has given to women great and excellent virtues, which far outweigh some small defects and faults, especially when they hold fast to modesty, truth and faith.

Women, when they learn the gospel, are much stronger and more fervent in faith. Mary Magdalene was more bold than Peter.

"It is not good for man to be alone. I will make him a help meet for him." These are the words of God; and can not be understood without faith.

Weak woman has nothing more precious and noble than her honor.

And thus she should be so minded as not to over-estimate ornament.

Otherwise, when once absorbed in seeking it, she will never cease from the pursuit. Such is the female character.

Therefore a Christian wife should condemn it.

A woman should be adorned, as St. Peter saith (I, iii; 3, 4), with the hidden adornment of a meek and quiet spirit.

A wife is sufficiently adorned when she is adorned for her husband.

Christ will not have you adorn yourself to please others, and to have men call you a handsome strumpet.

But to this you should look; that you have a hid treasure and a rich adornment in your heart; and that you live an unspotted and honorable and modest life.

It is a good indication that there is nothing very attractive in the mind, when too much attention is paid to ornament. (*Ether*, ii; 15.)

Gold and jewels are before man, splendid; but before God, an ill savor.

Why do foolish young women try to attract young fellows?

Do you not know that a young fellow will be afraid to choose you, if he thinks you will cost him so much in maintenance and clothing?

If you would gain the love of a young fellow, take this good advice: Be modest and speak little, and adorn yourself not much, and do not look straight at him with bold eyes.

The greatest adornment of a woman or a maiden is, a modest shamefacedness; for men's hearts are more attracted by that than by all adornments of attire.

And if this ornament departs, love also departs.

LUTHER.

See, in the tender child, two lovely blossoms united; youth and maiden, but thus far the bud conceals them both. But softly its bonds are dissolved, and their fresh young natures develop, and from her lovely modesty parts his fiery strength. Suffer the boy to play; give his furious impulses freedom; only when sated, his strength will return to her grace again. Forth from the bud, the blossoms are both beginning to struggle; each is lovely, yet neither is all that the heart desires. The maiden's graceful limbs are inspired with glowing feeling; but pride, like a girdle strong, represses closely their glow. Shy, like the trembling roe-deer, that flees from the forest bugle, she flees from man as a foe; even hates him—until she loves. But the youth looks, defiant and boldly, from under his shadowing eye-brows; and, hardened to strife and battle, stiffens his sinews amain. Far in the throng of spears, along the dust-covered race-course, enticing glory calls him, and boiling courage drives.

SCHILLER.

Let your daily occupations, dear girls, like those of your brothers, be industriously pursued, and apply yourselves diligently to what is commanded you; thus you will escape many useless thoughts and many follies.

Read diligently the Psalter, Jesus the son of Sirach, and Paul Gerhard's Hymns.

Read not foolish books, but flee from them as a poison which may destroy your soul.

For a young girl's hand these two things are proper, a prayer-book and a spindle.

Be much more cautious of doubtful or false friends, than even of open enemies.

A young woman should apply herself earnestly to domestic affairs; for a wife who can not keep house is the ruin and destruction of her husband.

But if God permits, practice, besides writing, arithmetic and house-keeping, also music and singing.

If you have yet time, devote it to prayer.

Sacred singing especially, is a truly angelic and heavenly employment, and a foretaste of the beautiful and lovely music of the angels of God; especially where not overloaded with ornament, and where it proceeds from heartfelt devotion, and not from pride and conceit.

Always show modesty, and act in an unobtrusive manner.

Where there is no discipline, there is no honor; but vile passions, bad thoughts and bad deeds.

A young woman ought not to use many words; for she ought not to be crammed with mere knowledge.

May God preserve us from an over-wise learned woman!

Prayer, writing, arithmetic, singing and housekeeping, are knowledge enough for a young woman.

Also a young woman should neither curse nor swear, should never speak unless spoken to, and should always answer as briefly as possible.

Also, she should live a quiet, orderly and blameless life, not running into every corner after news and new fashions, as Ringwald says,

"Avoid her who takes pleasure in gadding, in standing at the window or the door, talks with everybody, and works or spins lazily; who is addicted to roguish tricks, is proud and irritable, and determined always to be above everybody; who is obstinate, and will not be controlled."

It is almost a born trait of women, to be able to search out, discuss and find fault with almost everything. A hateful vice! How many maidens have come to great misfortune, and been prevented from all prosperity, by their own mouths!

Therefore a young woman should guard herself from pride and vanity.

For pride is not merely a foolish vice because it costs much, but is above others to be condemned, because it turns us aside from God; and every right-minded man should therefore diligently avoid it.

A proud person is an enemy of God, who is all mildness, benevolence and goodness;—is a jest and an abhorrence to all his neighbors, and his own destruction.

Young women should strive after humility, orderliness and purity.

Modesty distinguishes a pure mother of a family; humility, an intelligent one; order and neatness, a reliable one. MOSCHEROSCH.

First, let there be nothing froward in your voice; and let your soft glance, full of goodness, not go idly forth from under your modest brow; and be neither too loud, nor too slow, in speech; for such persons are not welcome here.

*Danaus to his daughters, in ÆSCHYLUS.*

The husband, in hard-working life, must work and labor, and plant and

contrive, and plot and scheme, and strive and venture, to secure success. Thus will he obtain ceaseless riches, and his warehouses will be filled with precious goods; his lands will increase, and his house will increase. And in it is presiding the modest housewife, the mother of his children, wisely ruling his domestic circle, teaching her girls and restraining her boys, and incessantly directing their industrious hands, and with judicious, orderly management increasing her husband's gains, and filling the fragrant chests with treasures, and spinning the humming thread on the spindle, and laying up in the polished box the tright wool and snowy linen, and keeping all his household goods bright and shining, and never resting.

SCHILLER. (*Poem.*)

Woman both needs, and may easily fail of securing the proper development of her immortal part, for the thankless labors and detailed occupations of her sex render her especially liable to neglect in this particular, and to be bound down and chained to earth, by the restricted limits of her sphere of action.

It is therefore time that not only amongst the lower classes, but among the middle and higher ranks, woman should raise herself out of the intellectual poverty, ignorance and restraint, the empty struggles after externals and the worthless tinsel of a shallow universal knowledge of social affairs, to which the egoism of men has hitherto usually condemned her.

To desire to place woman in a condition exactly similar to man's, is ridiculous; and to undertake this by means of the vain parade of school knowledge, is nonsense.

But she should stand as high as man, in her own department. So much is her right. And it is upon the attainment of this object that her hopes depend for a better mental development in the future. SOLDAN.

For girls, no cold speculative instruction, but a training of the susceptibilities; and one as nearly as possible adapted to the relations of the female sex.

Women can very well spare any other instruction.

KANT.

All male characters show more independent activity; all female ones, more passive susceptibility.

But their difference is rather in tendency, than in natural endowment; and thus it is the difference of intellectual tendency which chiefly distinguishes the male from the female character.

The former begins by performing some action, and afterwards receives a reactive impression, through the receptive faculties. The latter pursues the opposite method, first receiving the impression, and then reproducing it by means of the active faculties.

W. VON HUMBOLDT.

Man endeavors after freedom; woman after propriety.

GOETHE.

The morality of women is a propriety, not a principle.

Boys may be improved by the bad example of a drunken Helot; but women only by a good example.

None but boys can pass through the Augean stable of this world's life with only a little of its odor upon them.

But girls are tender, white Paris-apple-blossoms, hothouse flowers; from which dirt must be removed not with the hand, but with a delicate brush.

They should be trained up like the ancient priestesses, only in holy orders; and should never hear anything coarse, immoral or violent—not to mention seeing it.

Magdalena Pazzi said in her death-bed, that she did not know what an offence against chastity was. Education should at least try to proceed according to that pattern.



Maidens, like pearls and peacocks, are valued most when they are whitest.

A corrupt young man may lay aside a good book, walk up and down his room with hot tears, and cry out "I will change my life"—and hold to it.

But I have heard of but few women who have thus changed themselves.

In the world's opinion, men's faults are specks, leaving little or no scar; but women's are pock-marks, deeply traced in the memory after recovery—in the public memory at least.

JEAN PAUL RICHTER.

In education, the peculiar qualities of each sex need an appropriate treatment.

The nature of girls, predominantly susceptible, dependent therefore upon immediate feeling, sensitive, introverted, adapted to a narrow sphere, troubled at small things, should not be trained to noisy cheerfulness, to predominant mental activity, to clear and comprehensive generalizing, to universal tendencies in science, to a strictly logical process of thought, to rough openness of manner, to the more vivid, general, and outward phases of activity, such as are proper for boys; unless it is desired to carry them quite out of their sphere and to destroy in the germ the charm of lovely womanhood.

And on the other hand it should not be required of the predominantly active and outwardly tending minds of boys, to be as easily affected, as diligently applied to little things, as delicate in externals, as girls, whose proper sphere of action is that of propriety;—unless the pupil is to be made a pedant, and his faculties, which are intended to be exerted outwardly, are to be crippled.

BENDA.

As the natural character of the sexes is different, physically and mentally, and as their departments of destined exertion are different, so must their education, while similar in general, yet be essentially different in subordinate details.

The home of the man is to be the world; the world of woman, her home.

However fearful would be the punishment of bringing up a man for woman's sphere of duty, as heavy a curse would rest upon the endeavor to bring up a woman for the occupations of a man.

The boy is endowed with clear understanding, predominant reason and firm will, corporally fitted to strive with fate, to exert a powerful activity outwardly: the girl, with lively and tender feelings, a vivid imagination, a weaker will; she is corporally unfit to act upon the outer world, to operate on a large scale, to generalize. Thus do the two sexes differ; from this point must their respective educations proceed; towards a corresponding purpose must their discipline be directed, in order to the protection and development of the nobler germs of character, and to the improvement or extirpation of bad ones.

In plainer terms: Boys should be trained to be men, citizens, husbands, fathers; girls, to be true and tender women, wives and mothers.

Anything short of this, or beyond it, is wrong.

In the education of boys, maxims of boldness should be applied; in that of women, those of prudence.

SCHLEIERMACHER.

The future sphere for man is outside, in the world; in pushing and striving amongst men; there is his school.

The future theatre of feminine greatness is the family; and that is the school for girls.



To be a loving wife, a cheerful life companion, a diligent housewife, the guardian of her children, such is woman's vocation.

To-day, as much as in gray antiquity, these are still the requisites of the wife of a farmer or of a prince; except that each should also possess the easily acquired knowledge which is needed.

Easily acquired—for the daughters of the great have been seen living in a low estate and earning a living by the labor of their hands; and the daughters of low-born men have nobly filled royal thrones.

Woman is, in her nature and in her perfection, a noble counterpart of man.

He is formed to labor and act in the struggle of the outer world; she, to govern the quiet world of domestic life, beneath the roof of her home. He is fearless, defiant, bold in danger, that he may combat opposition, or bear it down by sheer strength; she governs by grace and mildness. He, investigating and estimating everything, skillful in all manner of handiwork and arrangement, becomes almost able to create; she, the priestess of natural duties and destinies, exhibits her most valuable qualities in controlling these.

As the outward world is contrasted with the inward, art with nature, strength with gracefulness, so is man in this world contrasted with woman.

Beyond this world the destiny of both is the same; religion is the everlasting crown of life to both.

These principles enable us to recognize the principal points of woman's vocation, and the clearly marked boundaries of the course of her education.

ZSCHOKKE.

Mighty art thou, O woman, by the quiet charm of thy presence.

But what thou canst not do in quiet, by violence ne'er can be done.

Power I look for from man; and laws are made to restrain him.

But woman governs by sweetness; should govern by sweetness alone.

'Tis true that many have ruled by might of will and of action;

But the loftiest crown of all was never attained by these.

The true queen ruleth alone by woman's womanly beauty—

Ruleth wherever seen; because she is seen, she ruleth. . SCHILLER.

The utterly false assumption that a girl needs to know but little, has already borne bitter fruit in the education of the female children of our people.

We consider all over-education—and of course that of the female sex—a misfortune. But it is not a less one, to have youths and maidens go forth into the world and enter upon their duties in life without such knowledge and skill as is indispensable; without having acquired such an extent and profundity of moral, intellectual and æsthetic training, as to feel themselves fully prepared for the vocation that awaits them.

Unfortunately, however, the education of girls is quite insufficient, especially in comparison with that of boys.

This ought no longer to be the case; in part for the sake of the female sex themselves, and in part for the sake of the human race collectively.

For to what other hands will the coming generation confide the bringing up and education of their children, than to those of their mothers?

But where shall these find the power, capacity and skill, required for instructing others, if they do not themselves possess it? (*Luke*, vi; 39.)

It is not entertaining too sanguine hopes, to expect that a more appropriate and thorough, comprehensive and systematical education of females, having a wiser and more practical reference to their future situation and duties, would produce improvements among our common people, which could scarcely be reached by any other means.

For as is the root, so is the tree; and as is the tree, so is the fruit.

The answer of Madame Campan to Napoleon's question, what deficiency was preventing the prosperity of the education of youth, notwithstanding all the institutions for the purpose? namely, that "There was a deficiency of mothers," is a very significant one, and suggests many reflections.

MENCKE.

The purer the gold of a vessel, the more easily is it bent. The highest grace of feminine excellence is more easily corruptible than the masculine.

Nature herself has provided a born protection and guard for these delicate souls; namely, modesty in speaking and hearing.

This protection should be observed; and should be used as an indication of nature of the proper method in education.

Mother, father, husband, children even, are the best company for young women. Their acquaintance with other young women of about the same age consists of an exchange of their weaknesses rather than their good qualities.

Some dissuaves are such as to serve at once for a persuasion and a bait.

If parents set a good example, they will not find themselves under the necessity of adding any further reinforcement to the natural power of modesty, that wing-cover of the wings of Psyche.

Instruction despoils the child, first, of his innocent unconsciousness of modesty, and afterwards of the quiet influence of it.

The children of Quakers are of mild dispositions, without any punishment; for they see their parents always as calm amongst uncongenial surroundings as snow-white stars looking forth among stormy clouds.

Girls, instead of silly ornamental occupations, should occupy themselves in the various employments of the household; whose constant change and incessant demands on the attention will prevent all dreaming and reverie. In their earlier youth they should learn cooking, and then gardening; afterwards, the administration of the household, and account-keeping.

A wife is like the minister of a small state; she is at the head of all the home departments at once. The husband has charge of foreign affairs.

Girls should learn whatever develops and trains the application of the bodily senses and the use of the eyes; such as botany, that inexhaustible, peaceful, ever fruitful science, which knits us to nature by soft flowery chains; and astronomy, not merely mathematical, but religious; which widens our world, and expands our souls along with it.

I would also advise mathematics, especially the simplest principles of pure and applied mathematics, and a corresponding portion of geometry.

Geography; not a mere register of localities, which would be of little value for the mental culture of women, and of little practical use; but with reference to what it contains of solid and real history, both of man and of the earth.

History; that variety of it which only leads from one antiquity to another, as studied by girls, can not contain too small a number of dates and names, nor can it be rich enough in great men and great actions, the knowledge of which elevates the soul above mere histories of cities and suburbs.

Music, vocal and instrumental, belongs to the female soul; it is the Orphean sound which will lead her safely past thousands of siren songs; and whose youthful echo will accompany her far within the autumn of married life.

Drawing, on the contrary, at least if cultivated beyond a sufficient knowledge of its rudiments to train the eye and the taste, deprives children and family employments of too much time; so that time spent in it is usually lost.

One foreign language is necessary as a means of intelligent companion and study with our own; but one is enough.

Inspire the heart; and then it will long not for light, but for the ethereal atmosphere of heaven.

JEAN PAUL RICHTER.

A husband should be earnest and industrious, and should support his wife and children honestly and respectably. He should not be a spend-thrift, nor waste in drinking what his wife saves at home. Also he should be of good conduct; neither a wolf nor a lion, so that his wife may not be fearful and afraid of him. And lastly he should be upright; so that his word may be a Yes, and Amen.

A wife should be domestic, industrious, and should economically manage all that her husband so laboriously and honorably earns; not given over to sloth, laziness, and gluttony, which would bring both husband and children together to beggary. And she must be obedient; not growling, murmuring, grumbling, snarling, complaining, &c.; and good natured too.

With one judicious pleasant word, a wife can bring over her husband, and gain his consent.

But a contrary and obstinate wife is a great burden to her husband.

And who would not rather live among the wolves, than with a bitter-tempered wife?

What is more destructive to the lovely peace which should prevail at home, than the bad temper and obstinacy of a disobedient and ill-conducted wife?

For disobedience is followed by contempt for the husband; and that by violent anger.

It is far better to obey and live in peace, than to strike and bite and quarrel.

It is and must be the prerogative of the head—the husband—to govern; and the members must do the will of the head.

Lastly, a wife should be serious; not running after follies, but finding her enjoyment in managing her household.

MOSCHEROSCH.

Girls, of all ranks and of whatever circumstances, should obtain practical skill in housekeeping; for during subsequent married life, even should they be in the easiest circumstances, they should always have a general oversight of their household, and be able to judge correctly of its affairs. They must know what can fairly be required of their servants; for too much is as often demanded of them as too little.

Early practice will enable a wife to conduct even a difficult household, and at the same time to do this with such ease and despatch as to have strength and leisure for intellectual employments.

A woman of good judgment, even without previous experience, can learn to keep house, by means of a firm resolution and diligent application; but her mind will be much absorbed in the work, and she will never be free from a certain anxiety, arising from the unaccustomed nature of the employment.

A Christian and well educated wife, whose quiet, intelligent and patient activity makes little display in words, and still less in constant, restless haste and scolding impatience, whose virtues and abilities will make her house so comfortable to her husband that he desires to stay in no other place, who educates her children judiciously to a Christian piety, without suffering any of the faculties which are the gift of the Lord only to be neglected or perverted into a false and narrow pietism,—such a wife should be the ideal of female education; in such an ideal is intimately united a mastery of domestic duties, and a high grade of mental training.

VON RAUMER.

Nothing is so much neglected as the education of girls.

Have not women duties which are the basis of their whole lives? Is it not they who destroy or build up families? They exert a most powerful influence upon the good or bad morals of almost all the world.

An intelligent, industrious and deeply religious wife is the soul of a whole great household; she controls it both in its temporal and eternal welfare.

Ignorance is often a cause which occasions girls to be at a loss for employment, and to busy themselves in ways not innocent.

If women reach a certain age without being accustomed to serious employments, they can neither acquire a taste for them, nor learn to value them properly.

FENELON.

Attractiveness is more valuable than beauty.

Beauty is an earthly quality, and fades in a few years; but attractiveness is a charm of the soul, and adorns even old age.

There are many beautiful forms and regular features. But what pleases the senses does not always attract the mind.

It is often the case that beautiful women are destitute of that charm whose sweetness, unfeigned regard for others, and undefinable dignity, enchants the hearts of all.

Beauty quickly gives pleasure, but does not continue always to do so. Attractiveness renders even serious defects loveable, and establishes, though slowly, an enduring dominion.

It is too commonly the case that women, in their desire to please, and to rule by pleasing, exchange their native agreeableness, even during the period of education, for external politeness, gracefulness of attitude and motion, and elegance of manners. But this is only painting a faded cheek; a counterfeiting what is not really possessed.

As beauty is the charm of the senses, so is attractiveness of the mind; a charm which beams through the corporeal envelope of the body, and ennobles it.

As the strength, mental power and tone of thought in a man, are indicated without his knowing it, in his features, his words, the tone of his voice, his step, his motions, so are the innocence, mildness, and nobility of the feminine character indicated in woman's exterior, without any artifice or design.

It is not a fashionable taste that gives attractiveness; but attractiveness, which often shows itself in trifling matters, which gives the laws of good taste.

The nobler the internal character, the nobler will the external be.

Therefore a higher degree of attractiveness accompanies outward purity and simplicity, than the richest adornment; for the former exemplify the virtues of the possessor, the latter her vanity.

ZSCHOKKE.

While a man who devotes himself to any elevated calling, should always have well studied the fates of the most important nations of the world, it would be inappropriate to require the same of women.

History, as studied by girls, should be directed to the cultivation of their sensibilities, their feelings, their sense of the great and noble; not the mere cramming of the memory.

The extent of what is to be committed to memory should be as limited as possible.

A chronological error is much less injurious to a young girl, than the least appearance to a pretension to historical learning.

It is self-evident that it will be of great service to a young girl, to be made acquainted with the lives and characters of the best feminine models.

VON RAUMER.

The instruction of girls in history deserves special consideration; it has been too much neglected. There should be more adaptation to their peculiar wants; and actual and ideal representations should be afforded, of the condition of women in different ages.

RUEBS.

"The best fruit of history," says Goethe, "is the enthusiasm which it creates." Accordingly, the historical studies of young women should be of an elevating character; and the actual facts communicated should be explained by their respective ideals.

In a history for girls, the chief object should be, to give a biographical and ethnographical representation of the human mind, in single characters, scenes and parties; but not by means of those interminable genealogies of rulers whose names and existences are often much more uncertain than many of the facts in mythology.

Wars, campaigns and battles, can least of all have any interest for them; it will be sufficient to acquaint them by a few representations, with the results of human efforts.

More time should therefore be occupied in following the progress of civilization, manners, customs, arts and religion; and most of all, in the consideration of eminent female characters.

Great wickedness, and outbreaks of brutal vileness can not be entirely passed over; but it will not be a blamable caution, in treating of such things, to make use of much regard to the feelings of the young, and especially to the tender sensibilities of the female sex.

In a history for girls, the chief object should be to bring out the relation between the narrative and actual life; especially with that of women.

Our young women should study history, in order to learn to recognize the earnest purposes of life, and the hand of God as seen in the fates of individual men and whole nations; to avoid becoming similar to those creatures who are carried away with the frivolous sillinesses which French manners and governesses have imparted into our father-land; that in studying Greek history they may follow back to its natural condition that society which a period of affectedness has modelled into stiff and unnatural fashions; to acquaint themselves with the sensible and plain-spoken Socrates; to learn how to understand Jesus and his divine instructions; to secure themselves from falling under the dominion of either sneerers or mystics, and of thus becoming either skeptical or superstitious.

Our daughters should study history, that they may be domestic, true and honorable, after the model of the ancient German wives; that they may appreciate the important duty confided to them by Providence, of training men, from infancy upwards.

For whenever we see a great man, we may see behind him a noble mother, who carefully and lovingly watched over the seeds of his future greatness.

Our women should be acquainted with history, that they may learn how in times of barbarism and degeneration, arts and sciences, virtue and faith, have found a place of safety with them and them only; and also how bad women have caused the destruction of whole nations.

History should also be a protection against silly tattling and vulgar amusements, and all the miserable superficiality and emptiness which characterizes so many women; and also against the excessive sensibility and fancifulness which have carried away many nobly endowed women from themselves and their duty, and plunged them into irreconcilable quarrels.

OESER.

As soon as a mother becomes aware that her daughters are no longer contented to be playing all the time, that they have occasional seasons of

idleness and *ennui*, she must set about supplying all manner of little occupations to prevent it.

Knitting and sewing should be taught to all girls, of whatever rank, as soon as their aptitude for handiwork is developed.

As soon as they are skilled in these occupations, they are thus fitted to learn artistic and ornamental work; lessons in which may be allowed them as a reward for industry in doing the sewing of the family.

It is desirable that girls should become sufficiently acquainted with ornamental work to be able to do all that is necessary for the tasteful adornment of a room or a dress.

VON RAUMER.

The very idea of a public institution for female education is at variance with the best education for women.

The sphere of action of the future man is out in the world; and there should be his school.

But the scene for the exercise of the womanly virtues is a domestic one; the family; and this should be the girl's school.

The life of a family is entirely different from that in an educational institution.

In the former is to be found God's wisely ordained association of young and old persons of both sexes; varieties of thought and feeling, and the duties and the rights of those of different ages. Girls have an opportunity of learning what are right and wrong ways in housekeeping, and in fulfilling the duties of social life; they learn to obey the old, to take charge of the young, to be companions of those of their own age, and to direct those under their authority. Therefore the home life amongst brothers and sisters and parents, small and great together, is the proper school for girls.

In public institutions there are no parents, to conciliate the confidence of the childish heart; there are only teachers, from whom the inmost heart is cautiously concealed, for fear of misunderstanding; while outward propriety is carefully watched over, and at last comes to be the principal thing. The hundred instructive little daily occurrences of domestic life are wanting; and the peculiarities of character which make the deepest impression on the heart. Instead of these there is a cold uniformity in listening and in doing, and with the best teachers and companions, none are seen but strangers. And thus, during the most critical years of the young woman's life, her character takes an impress which is in future life to be seldom necessary, but often injurious.

She returns to domestic life, with a scientific half-education, skillful in concealing her thoughts from others, accomplished in external decorum, with an increased desire and capacity for shining before the world in little things.

Well for her if she finds there again the ancient happiness, naturalness and innocence of her childhood.

Her parents' home and those of her relatives must anew become her school.

But often it is too late, and she is ruined forever for the labors, the sameness, and the little enjoyments of domestic life.

She becomes a wife, but without becoming the cheerful companion for life of her husband; the head of a family, without being able to govern her house with consistent diligence and with equal care and wisdom both in great things and in small; a mother, without taking pleasure in maternal duties.

We have many instructions for the education of girls. But pious parents will instruct them best, in their own family.

What constituted a perfect woman thousands of years ago, constitutes her still. (See Proverbs, xxxi; 11 to 31.)

ZACHOCKE.



### III. GIRLS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF BOSTON.

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Prior to 1789, according to the biographer\* of Caleb Bingham, no public provision appears to have been made for the instruction of girls in the city (then, the town) of Boston. The only schools to which girls were admitted in 1784 were called Writing Schools, (in which penmanship, reading and spelling were taught,) and were kept by the teachers of the public schools between the forenoon and afternoon sessions. In that year Mr. Bingham opened a private school for girls, and such was his success, that in 1789, in the "Great Reform" which was in that year made in the public schools, he was solicited and prevailed on to take charge of one of the three Reading Schools, into which girls were admitted on a footing of equality with boys,—the girls attending the Reading School in the morning and the boys the Writing School, (each school having these two independent departments, which thus acquired the name of the double-headed system, and was continued for more than a half-century,) and in the afternoon the boys attended the Reading School, and the girls the Writing School,—the masters never changing rooms, and the boys and girls changing the half-day once a month. Even under this arrangement, girls were only allowed to attend the schools six months in the year, from April to October, and during the winter months half the boys attended the Reading School while the other half attended the Writing, alternating as the boys and girls did in summer. This state of things continued till 1826.

In May, 1825, at a meeting of the School Committee, on the motion of the Rev. John Pierpont, a Special Committee was raised "to consider the expediency and practicability of establishing a public school for the instruction of girls in the higher departments of science and literature." This Committee reported on the 22d of June following in favor of establishing such a school, to be conducted on the monitorial system, and the City Council was requested to appropriate two thousand dollars for this purpose, which was done on the 25th of September, 1825. The school was instituted by the School Committee on the 13th of January, 1826, and was called the High School for Girls, and the examination of can-

\* WILLIAM B. FOWLE. *Memoir of Caleb Bingham*—in "*Barnard's American Teachers and Educators*." Vol. 1., p. 55.



didates for admission was commenced on the 22nd of February following, and the school was opened under the charge of Ebenezer Bailey.

The following extracts are from the Report of the Committee appointed to consider the subject in May, 1825. The Report was written by Rev. John Pierpont :

In the first place, in regard to the *general* expediency of placing women, in respect to education, upon ground, if not equal, at least bearing a near and an honorable relation, to that of men, in any community, your committee think that no doubt can, at this day, be entertained by those who consider the weight of female influence in society, in every stage of moral and intellectual advancement; and especially by those who consider the paramount and abiding influence of mothers upon every successive generation of men, during the earliest years of their life, and those years in which so much, or so little, is done, towards forming moral character, and giving the mind a direction and an impulse towards usefulness and happiness in after life. As to the *general* expediency, then, of giving women such an education as shall make them fit wives for well educated men, and enable them to exert a salutary influence upon the rising generation, as there can be no doubts, your committee will use no arguments at this board; but will confine themselves to the *particular* expediency of provision for a higher education of our daughters, at the public expense.

And your committee think favorably of making an effort to this end, for the following reasons which are particular, as well as for the many reasons which are more general in their nature.

In the first place, it would render more efficient, and, consequently, more profitable to the city, the provision which has already been made for the public education of its daughters.

As our public Grammar schools are now constituted, some of the finest scholars in the girls' department are seen in the first class, at the age of eleven or twelve years, by the side of girls fourteen or fifteen years old, who have been rather tolerated in the first class, either from courtesy to their age, or from pity to their unsuccessful efforts, than entitled to a place there, on the score of their good scholarship. As the class must, on the present system of organization, move on together, the former are continually held in check, that the latter may keep in their company; and, as the masters have neither time nor the authority to go with them into higher studies, it is easy to see, what is of every day's occurrence, that the more sprightly girls find it difficult to fill up their hours profitably to themselves; and are in constant danger of falling into habits of inattention, and mental dissipation; a danger which now presses upon them for two or three of the last years that they are allowed their seats in the public schools. Now, by the school proposed, this evil, which is a very serious one, would be obviated. The same field would be opened in this school, for the girls, as has, for a few years, been so successfully opened in the English High School, for the boys in the Grammar schools. An object would be presented of honorable ambition, and of lively competition, to the misses who are now condemned to two, and sometimes three years, very inadequately and unprofitably employed; and those indolent habits of mind might be avoided, which it is so much easier to prevent than to correct.

Secondly, the school contemplated seems to your committee to be particularly expedient for this city, in respect to the impulse that would be given by it to the whole machinery of our public instruction, through the medium of the *Primary schools*.

These schools are daily gaining the confidence of the community, and, consequently, are daily furnishing a greater and greater proportion of the children to our Grammar schools. Of course, it is of continually increasing importance that these *first* schools should be taught by those who are themselves well educated. They are, and probably will be, taught exclusively by women; and it is doing no injustice to the city, or to the gentlemen who so faithfully superintend these schools, to say, that they are not always able to find women qualified as they ought to be, to take charge of these very interesting public institutions. A school like that now in contemplation, would certainly and permanently furnish teachers for the *Primary schools*, competent in every respect to render the city efficient service; and espec-

lally in this respect, that they will have gained, by their own experience, a thorough knowledge of our whole system of public instruction, and the relations of its several parts to each other. Thus, the city will insure to itself a greater excellence and uniformity in the primary schools, than is possible at present, and be always able to recur to its own resources, to meet its own wants;—exhibiting thus, in morals—what has been so long a desideratum in mechanics—a piece of machinery that, by its own operation, produces the power by which itself is driven.

Thirdly, your committee think a school such as is proposed particularly expedient to this city, in regard to the experiment that might be made of it, of the practicability and usefulness of *monitorial or mutual instruction*; or, at least, of so much of that system as *on experiment* would be found to accord with the genius and habits of our community. That *something* of this system might be introduced into all our public schools, to the benefit of the schools and to the pecuniary advantage of the city, your committee can hardly doubt. One experiment has been made, and made successfully. But there were considerations which prevented the carrying of that system up from the school in which it was tried, into the higher public schools. The same system, with some qualifications, has been under successful experiment in a subscription school, composed of the daughters of our most respectable families; and your committee are persuaded that, under the control of a master of judgment and genius, so much of that system might be profitably introduced into a female High School, as would prove to the public in this city, that the same might be carried into our *Grammar and Reading* schools, at least, to great advantage. At any rate, a *satisfactory experiment* might be made. Should it fail, as it hardly can, the city will lose nothing but the time and comparatively trifling expense of making it; and should it succeed, the city will secure to itself the better instruction of one-third more children than are now instructed, and at probably one-third less expense.

Your committee are not sure that it falls within the spirit of their commission to present a statement of the studies which should be pursued in the proposed institution. But, without attempting a particular statement, or a definite arrangement, of the studies,—leaving that duty to a future committee, should the city think favorably of the project,—your committee would beg leave to recommend, in general, that in the female High School should be taught reading; writing words and sentences from dictation; English grammar, embracing frequent exercises in the composition, transposition, and resolution of sentences; composition, to be taught systematically, and to be a regular exercise in all the classes; rhetoric; geography, ancient and modern, embracing the use of maps and globes; elements of geometry, so far as is necessary to the construction of maps, and to the study of natural philosophy; arithmetic, intellectual and written; book-keeping by single entry; general history; history of Greece, Rome, England, and the United States; natural philosophy, with as much of chemistry as would be useful in domestic economy; moral philosophy; natural theology; and astronomy.

Of these studies, however, your committee would recommend that some be *required* and others only *permitted*, as tokens of merit and incitements to industry; thus opening, in this school, what this is intended to open to all the Grammar schools of the city, a course of higher instruction, as an object of honorable emulation, and the most unexceptionable reward of industry.

Having spoken thus of the general character of the school, and of the considerations which, in their opinion, render the establishment of it particularly expedient, your committee would, in the second place, state briefly their views of the practicality of establishing it.

To this there can be but one objection,—that of *expense*. But your committee are persuaded that this is not an insuperable obstacle to the effecting of an object, which seems to be so important to the best interests, and to one of the most cherished objects, of the citizens of Boston,—their system of public education. \* \*

*When liberally supported, they more than support themselves.* They are a source, not of honor only, but of pecuniary profit, to the city; for, taking into view—as an enlightened policy does take into view—the whole period during which these institutions exert their influence upon the community, they more than indemnify the city for the expense of their maintenance, in that the knowledge they diffuse through the great mass of the population, throws open new and wider fields to enterprise, gives higher aims to ingenuity, and supplies more profitable objects to industry.

The following extracts are from the Report of the Committee on the

organization and standing of the school, which was accepted by the Board in October, 1825:

Your committee would propose that the candidates for admission to this school shall be *eleven*, and not more than *fifteen* years of age; allowance, in particular cases, to be made according to the discretion of the School Committee; that they shall be admitted on examination in those studies, which are pursued in the public Grammar schools of the city; and that the examination may be strict or otherwise, as the number of candidates shall hold relation to the accommodations provided for them:—

That the course of studies in this, as in the English High School, shall be calculated to occupy *three years*:—

That, in pursuance of the suggestion of the original report on this subject, some studies shall be *required* of all the scholars, and others *allowed* as evidences of honorable proficiency, and as motives to higher efforts; and that the following be the studies of the school, according to the order in which they shall be pursued, until otherwise ordered by the School Committee.

#### FIRST YEAR.

*Required*: No. 1. Reading—2. Spelling—3. Writing words and sentences from dictation—4. English grammar, with exercises in the same—5. Composition—6. Modern and ancient geography—7. Intellectual and written arithmetic—8. Rhetoric—9. History of the United States.

*Allowed*: Logic, or botany.

#### SECOND YEAR.

*Required*: Nos. 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, continued—10. Book-keeping by single entry—11. Elements of geometry—12. Natural philosophy—13. General history—14. History of England—15. Paley's Natural Theology.

*Allowed*: Logic, botany, demonstrative geometry, algebra, Latin or French.

#### THIRD YEAR.

*Required*: Nos. 1, 5, 12, 15, continued—16. Astronomy—17. Treatise on the globes—18. Chemistry—19. History of Greece—20. History of Rome—21. Paley's Moral Philosophy—22. Paley's Evidences of Christianity.

*Allowed*: Logic, algebra, principles of perspective, projection of maps, botany, Latin, or French.

The High School for Girls was opened on the 27th of February, 1826, with one hundred and thirty pupils out of 286 candidates examined, one-half from private, and the other half from public schools; of these 37 were between eleven and twelve years of age, 69 between twelve and thirteen, 72 between thirteen and fourteen, 94 between fourteen and fifteen, and 14 had attained the age of fifteen. In the account of the school, prefixed to the first catalogue, published soon after its opening, the following remarks occur:

In many respects, this institution is an experiment; and it cannot be fairly tested without patient and laborious exertions. A free school for the instruction of females, founded on principles so liberal, is in itself a novelty; but such a novelty argues well for the spirit and improvement of the age, and of the community wherein it is fostered. Although the correct literary education of females is no longer regarded as a subject of comparatively little, or even of secondary importance; this is, perhaps, the first school, established by the public care and supported at the public expense, in which they may receive a systematical course of instruction in the higher departments of literature and science. Much depends, therefore, on the success of this experiment; and it is confidently hoped that the public may not be disappointed in their expectations. It will not be supposed that a school of more than a *hundred and thirty* scholars, who have been accustomed to almost every variety of instruction and discipline to be found in the public and private schools of the city, can be organized on principles with which they are wholly unacquainted, and put into complete and successful operation, at its very commencement, by a single instructor. Much time will be required to ascertain, with any considerable

degree of accuracy, the respective powers and attainments of such a number of pupils, whose studies have been widely different, not only in the books used, but also in their order of succession. If the indulgence be granted, which these circumstances seem to demand, there can be no doubt that the success of the school will fully meet all the reasonable hopes and wishes of its friends.

An account of the peculiarities in the plan of government and instruction to be adopted, will not now be expected. The arrangements of the school, in these respects, are not yet fully matured. Indeed, as the spirit of improvement is at work in the business of education, with unprecedented earnestness and success, it is hoped that many valuable alterations may be introduced, from time to time, and incorporated into the method of teaching to be pursued; for it is the part of wisdom to neglect no suggestion, really useful and valuable, under whatever name or as a component part of whatever system, it may come before the world.

The following paragraphs, from the "Regulations and Catalogue" of the school in January, 1827, contain statements of historical interest:

The attainments of several of the candidates, who were rejected, were very creditable in all the required branches, excepting mental arithmetic; in this, all were deficient, in a greater or less degree. A large proportion of them had never paid any attention to the study; and some of those who professed to be acquainted with it, merely *ciphered without a slate*, exhibiting no acquaintance with that close and perspicuous method of reasoning, which constitutes the chief beauty and excellence of the system. It is understood that very many, desirous of entering the school, were deterred from offering themselves from examination, by a conscious deficiency in this branch; it having been embraced, but a short time, in the course of instruction pursued in the Writing Schools of the city.

No scholar shall be admitted into the school, until she shall have attained the age of *fourteen years*, nor after she shall have attained the age of *sixteen*, or shall remain in the school longer than one year. An exception is made in favor of the present scholars, who, having been originally admitted for three years, are permitted to remain until the next annual exhibition.

Candidates for admission shall be examined in Reading, Writing, Modern Geography, and Colburn's First Lessons in Arithmetic, and they shall be able to parse fluently any English composition in prose or verse.

Before the end of the second year, the school had become so popular, the applicants for admission so numerous, so many parents were disappointed that children were not received, the demand for larger and better accommodations, and for increased scholars, involved such additional expenditures, that the School Committee were perplexed, and under the lead of the Mayor, Josiah Quincy, (Senior,) on the 21st of February, 1828, adopted a report and series of resolutions, by which the Girls' High School was discontinued, the branches taught in that school were introduced into the Grammar Schools, and the girls were allowed to continue through the year in the same until they were sixteen years of age, although the boys were dismissed at fourteen. The Report by which these changes were advocated was drawn up by Mayor Quincy, and was subjected, so far as the High School for Girls was concerned, to a searching "Review" by Mr. Bailey, under whom as Principal the school had attained such remarkable success. From these documents we give the following extracts as part of the history of the education of girls, not only in Boston, but in other cities—for there can be no doubt as to the influence of the example of Boston in delaying the establishment of this class of schools elsewhere.

The sub-committee, after reciting the history of the school substantially as given in the preceding pages, observe that the effect of consequences of establishing a school of such extent and splendid promise for the education of females, to be paid for from the general funds of the city had not been exactly estimated. "The anticipations of the school committee had completely failed" not in respect to the prosperity or efficiency of the school, but in as much as the school-room deemed sufficient, would not accommodate all entitled to admission under the too liberal requisitions of candidates as to age and qualifications originally established, and because the committee in the development of the experiment find it necessary to limit the minimum age to fourteen, and the preliminary studies to every thing required in the public grammar and writing schools, thus making the Girls High School occupy for girls the same place in the system of public instruction, as the Latin and English High Schools did for boys. On this state of facts the sub-committee observe :

The great argument for a High School for girls, of the extent of time and objects of education as first proposed, was, that the same had been done for the boys, and that it was reasonable that one sex should have the same advantages as the other.

It was not however, sufficiently considered, if it was at all foreseen, that the difference of the circumstances of girls and boys, at the period of life between eleven and sixteen would make a material difference, in respect to the practicability of a school on such a basis, considered as a part of a public system of education to be provided for out of the general funds of the city.

Between the ages of eleven and sixteen, girls are not like boys, for the most part abstracted from general objects, by the necessity of attending to objects having reference to some particular trade or profession. A school, therefore, requiring for admission, qualifications, of no very high character, and such as parents by a little forcing of the education of their daughters, in private schools or by domestic instruction, might generally command, and which was in fact of the nature of a college for all girls between eleven and sixteen, was of a nature very attractive, and as it was to be confined of course to the best scholars from our public schools, it partook of the character of *selection* and *exclusion*, thereby obviating the objection which prevents some parents from availing themselves of our common schools.

The effect of this state of things was evident in the number of the candidates, at the first examination; being as above stated *two hundred and eighty-six*; and also in the reasonable anticipation made of the number of candidates, which were prepared to offer had the same state of qualification continued in the second examination,—from three to four hundred,—and in the fact that of all the scholars, who entered the High School, it is understood that not one, during the eighteen months of its operation voluntarily quitted it; that is, who from circumstances could have enjoyed its advantages.

The difference between the practicability of such a school as applied to females, and considered as a part of a system of public education to be paid for out of the general funds of the city, and as applied to boys, cannot be more strikingly illustrated than by a comparison of that result, with the following facts.

The High School for boys has been in operation ever since 1821, and in every respect has been successful and popular, yet the greatest number of applicants for admission, which ever offered was ninety. The greatest number ever admitted was eighty-four. And although it has been so many years in successful operation, its present number is only one hundred and forty-six.

In relation to the continuance of those admitted into the High School for boys the contrast is still more striking. The number of those annually admitted into it is constantly and rapidly diminishing, every successive year, as the parents of scholars are able to find places to put them out as apprentices, or in counting houses. So



that the fact is that "the greatest number of these who have continued through their whole course is seventeen; — and they belonged to a class consisting originally of about seventy members."

Now from the facts which have occurred and from the known circumstances of females, between the ages of eleven and sixteen, there is no reason for believing that any one, once admitted to the school, would voluntarily quit it for the whole three years; unless, indeed in case of marriage.

Another fact, not to be omitted in the estimate of the effect of this High School for girls, considered as a practicable public system is, that the greater number of those admitted to that school was from private schools; that is out of one hundred and twenty-one, sixty-two were from private, and fifty-nine from the public schools. It was understood that the proportion of the number about to offer for the second examination, had the original principles of admission continued, would have been far greater from the private schools.

In this connection it may be proper to state, in order to indicate the degree of preparation and expense to which the establishment of such a collegiate course of studies, under the name of a High School, would necessarily lead, that the whole number of girls, in our present Grammar and High Schools between eleven and fifteen years of age, is about seven hundred, that the number of girls, between the same ages, receiving their education within the city, in private schools and families, must be unquestionably far greater. Supposing only that the number of this class be equal, then it is apparent that there will be a great total of nearly fourteen hundred girls in every year to whom the benefits of this collegiate course, at the expense of the city, would be proffered, upon the single condition of becoming fit to enter this school within that period of age. It cannot be questioned that the proffer of so unexampled a privilege would awaken the strong desire of every parent, and female of the admitted age, in the city, to become partakers of it. And this desire would be proportionably strong and active in parents, who had been in the previous habit of educating their children in private schools, because they would feel most strongly relief from the expense to which they had hitherto subjected themselves; and would perceive that having the pecuniary ability to force the education of their children in private schools, or by domestic tuition, they would most certainly be able to avail themselves of this advantage. Accordingly it was found that the excitement and stimulus were much greater among children of this class than among any other. There was reason to expect far greater numbers from private schools than from the public. The estimate above stated made by the Sub-Committee for the High Schools for girls of four hundred was probably not extravagant, and if it had fallen short the then current year, it would without question have been equalled the next. It being next to a certainty that when so desirable and uncommon a privilege was proffered, at least one third of all within the admitted age would qualify themselves to take advantage of it. As for the reasons before stated, it is believed that not one girl once admitted would voluntarily quit the school, during the whole three years.—except in case of marriage,—it followed that provision must be made for, from eight to twelve hundred scholars, in the first three years; at an expense of two High School-houses with suitable preparations, which would cost not less than fifty-thousand dollars; and upon the supposition of the same ratio of masters and ushers to scholars (one to one hundred) and only the same rate of salaries as in our present Grammar schools, causing an additional expense of ten thousand eight hundred dollars annually; with a certainty that the numbers and expense must annually increase. These facts and considerations were irresistible and conclusive to show that a High School education was a very different thing in its results, as it respects our general school system, when applied to girls, than when applied to boys; and; that aside from all considerations of its particular effects upon our Grammar and Writing schools, some of which were unquestionably injurious, and without taking notice of the objection that it might not be within the general policy of the laws of the Commonwealth relative to public education, it could not be maintained and ought not to be continued as a part of our public system, on the basis of time and qualification, on which it was first projected. The opinion became general, if not universal, that some change in its principles must be adopted, if it were continued. Two schemes only were suggested by those, who would continue the course of three years. 1. That the High School should be confined to those educated in the common schools. This of course would not be sustained for one moment. For in addition to the common right, which would be in-

herent in all parents, the tendency would be to bring back to our common schools a class of children, from the education of whom they were now relieved by the predilections, or pecuniary ability, of parents.

2. That the qualification should be raised while the course of three years should be continued. This last was the favorite remedy with those most desirous for the continuance of the institution on this principle of time.

A single objection seems, however, conclusive on this point. In proportion to the qualifications for admission are raised, the school becomes exclusive. Though nominally open to all, it will be in fact open only to the few, and shut to the many. Now if the objects to be acquired in a school of this kind are important to the whole community, nothing can be more obvious than that the advantages of a school, provided for out of the funds of the whole community, should be received by the whole community.

If it be asked does not the same objection apply to the Latin School and the High School for boys, the answer is obvious. The destination of boys, in future life, has reference to professions and pursuits, (including services to the community in public stations,) infinitely various compared with the destination of girls. The essential reasons for supporting, at the public expense, these last mentioned Schools, is that they enable every individual in the community, however poor, to have his son educated for the particular profession, or pursuit in life, for which his talent destines him.

If however, these schools, instead of educating each about one hundred and fifty boys annually, should show themselves to be of a nature to attract within their sphere all those, at present educated at private schools,—if it should appear that the number must rise, in the course of three or four years, to at least eight or twelve hundred annually,—or if, of all that entered, none during the whole course would be likely to quit,—and the effect upon the common schools was positively injurious,—it would become a serious question, whether schools of that character could be supported out of the general funds of the city; and would lead either to their modification or abandonment.

Under these general views, your Sub-Committee cannot hesitate to come to the same conclusion, which the School Committee, by adopting the vote of the 17th November, 1826, effectually did, and declare it as their opinion, that the High School for girls ought not to be reestablished upon the basis of embracing the extent of time and the multiplied objects of education, which the original plan of that School contemplated.

With respect to the second question, shall the High School for girls be continued on the restricted basis, as to time and objects, to which it was reduced by the vote of the 17th November, 1826, your Sub-Committee apprehend that it will receive a decision equally easy and satisfactory. A basis, adopted for the purpose of escaping from an unanticipated exigency, containing no proportion between time allotted, and objects of education proposed, can be justified by no sound principle of wisdom. The effect of such a system, would be to make a new High School every year to be organized, disciplined and instructed, so far as respects the children, by a new master. It is scarcely possible that such a school would produce any important effects, or would justify the expenditure it would require. To say nothing of its being necessarily of an exclusive character, and its benefits confined, in effect, to a very few.

It is obviously far preferable to arrange all our Grammar and Writing Schools so as that the standard of education in them may be elevated and enlarged; thereby making them all, as it respects females, in fact High Schools, in which each child may advance according to its attainments to the same branches recently taught in that school.

Your Sub-Committee have therefore come to the conclusion, that the circumstances, in which the city is placed, by the result of "the experiment" of the High School for girls, render it their duty to enter upon the consideration of extending the advantages, now enjoyed in our public schools, upon a general and systematic plan, having reference to the exigencies of the whole community, predicated upon no principals of favoritism or exclusion, but adapted to elevate the condition, both moral and intellectual of the children of the whole community; particularly of those classes who, from their pecuniary condition are at least able to provide for the education of their own children.



The Sub-Committee, after a survey of the condition of the public schools propose the following modifications:

1. The introduction of the Monitorial system into all our public Grammar and Writing schools, as soon as it is practicable.

2. The elevating and enlarging the standard of public education, in all our Grammar and Writing Schools, so as to embrace the branches taught, recently in our High School for girls.

To this object two things are plainly essential. 1. The introduction, as is proposed, of the monitorial system into the Grammar and Writing schools, because the High School for girls was instituted, conducted, and its studies arranged with reference to that system. 2. Removing the present fourth class from our Grammar and Writing Schools: for unless this be done, it is impossible to introduce the elevated and enlarged course of studies proposed. 3. Introducing the monitorial system also into our Primary Schools, and thus effecting the requisite modification of those Schools.

The advantages, then, which the Sub-Committee contemplate by the modifications they suggest, are the following:

1. The grammar and writing Masters will be relieved from a class of children, which distract their attention from the higher branches of education which it is the intention to multiply and extend in those schools.

2. The grammar and writing schools will be elevated both in character and standard.

3. The number of our public schools will be reduced, the modes of education in them simplified, and a greater uniformity of system and productive power will be the necessary consequence.

4. By having male instructors for male children exclusively, it will be easy without deranging the general system of our schools to introduce, and instruct, those boys, who have passed the present legal age of admission into the primary schools without being qualified to enter the grammar and writing schools.

5. Besides the last mentioned advantages, which would result to females, under like circumstances, of age and want of qualification, another would be the consequence of having girls taught exclusively in the primary schools by females, as it would enable needlework to be introduced among the branches taught; as is the case in these schools elsewhere.

6. The opening, which would be made for the present ushers, in the male primary schools, will, by taking away one of the objections to the introduction of this system, tend greatly to facilitate the measure.

7. But the prominent and most certain effect of the system proposed is by removing the fourth class, to give room for teaching those branches recently taught in the High School for girls; whereby greater advantages it is believed will be obtained, and those more general and immediate, and more commodiously than that single school could have afforded. A high and interesting course of education will be thus kept constantly before the eyes and within the reach of all the scholars of all the schools. To advance in which course would be an object of continual ambition, to which the child would be daily stimulated by witnessing the success of others. Its entrance on that course would not depend upon acquisitions at a particular age, and which, if that age be passed without attaining, would be wholly forfeited, but would be perceptibly, within the child's reach, in every period of its school age. Indeed the effect of teaching higher branches in these schools must inevitably disseminate a knowledge of them in a greater or less degree among all the classes, even the lower, and such as would, perhaps, never have gained any knowledge, or idea of them, if they were taught, exclusively in a separate school. Such a system of teaching the higher branches, in these schools, would conform strictly to the general policy of the laws of the Commonwealth relative to public education. To it, there could be no objection, on accounts of its wants of such conformity; nor on account of its being exclusive and partaking of a character of favoritism. The children of the whole community would, if their parents pleased, enjoy of necessity and not by possibility, all the benefits of all the branches of education even the highest.

That girls may reap the benefits of the system, your Sub-Committee propose that they should be permitted to continue through the whole year, and that another year should be added to those they are now allowed to remain in the schools.

Of such portion of the Report of the Sub-Committee as treats of the High School for Girls, Mr. Bailey, who had resigned his position as Master of that School, and opened a High School for Girls on his own responsibility, published a "Review,"\* from which the following extracts are taken :

The Report of Mr. Quincy recommending various IMPROVEMENTS in our system consists of three parts,—as it relates to the High School for Girls, the Grammar and Writing Schools, and the Primary Schools,—each of which would afford matter for copious remarks, perhaps for severe animadversion. It is no part of my plan, however, to examine his project, so far as it relates to what he calls, by way of emphasis, "the Common Schools." But having been appointed by the School Committee to conduct the experiment of the High School for Girls,—having devoted my time and strength and all my energies to this service for nearly two years,—and having been intimately acquainted with the whole history and progress of the institution, I feel myself called upon to expose the fallacy of Mr. Quincy's arguments, by which he would satisfy the public that "the result of the experiment has been an entire FAILURE:"—that such an institution is from its very nature "impracticable" in this city! This renders it a solemn duty to disabuse the public by showing them the other side of the picture, and, moreover, many of those friends whose opinions I am most accustomed to respect, have urged this duty upon me. For myself, I need not say, that I can be influenced by no interested motive,—my present position being far more eligible than any which the School Committee have it in their power to bestow. If, therefore, I have any personal interest in the matter, it is that the High School for Girls should be discontinued.

The subject requires that I "use great plainness of speech;" but I would not willingly forget the respect due to one who "has done the State some service,"—more especially as I have no personal animosity towards Mr. Quincy. In this discussion, he is regarded only as a public man, intrusted with important interests by his fellow citizens, and exerting an active and powerful influence upon the institutions of the city. The extent to which instruction should be carried at the public expense, is a question fairly open for discussion on general principles; and one on which intelligent and patriotic men may very honestly entertain different opinions. Whether, in particular, it was expedient to institute the High School for Girls,—and whether, after it was instituted, it ought to have been sustained,—are questions worthy of a free investigation, but they ought to be met in a manly, open and ingenuous manner. It may not be expedient to support a High School for Girls,—but it is expedient that the citizens be correctly informed on the subject,—and it is not right that the institution should be put down by "indirection." I do not complain of Mr. Quincy that he has been adverse to that school, from the very day when it was first proposed,—he had an unquestionable right to be opposed to the "experiment;"—but I do complain of him because he has not been an open and generous enemy to it,—because he has not pursued a course worthy of the institution, of himself, of the city over which he presides.

The people of Boston have been accustomed almost to venerate their public schools, for they have regarded them as a rich inheritance bequeathed to them by their ancestors. They have loved these institutions, for the influence they have exerted on the minds and manners and hearts of their children; and although they have never supposed their schools to be perfect, still they have been proud of them. They have paid liberally and with a willing hand for their support, and have felt them to be noble monuments of an enlightened policy. Nor has this feeling been confined to citizens of Boston alone. Their system of free schools has excited the admiration of intelligent strangers, not only from different parts of our own country but from Europe, and has been regarded as a model, well worthy of being attentively studied. It is not generally known except to their teachers, how often the public schools of this city are visited by persons from abroad, interested in the subject of education. While the High School for Girls was in operation, it was thus visited almost daily. It happened not unfrequently, that many gentlemen were present at

\*Review of the Mayor's Report, on the Subject of Schools, so far as relates to the High School for Girls." By E. Bailey, late Master of that School, 1853, p. 54.

the same time, who had come from different and from distant parts of the country for the single purpose of examining the methods of education pursued in this city. Among these were often to be seen the accredited agents of public institutions from different cities.

Knowing these things, it was with a feeling of mortification,—of astonishment,—that I read the Report of Mr. Quincy. I was not prepared to hear, from the Chairman of the School Committee, that our whole system of public education is radically wrong,—that we are vastly behind the age in this respect,—and that our schools are so essentially defective, that their present arrangements must be torn up, root and branch, to make way for a new organization. No one will deny that these schools have some defects which demand a remedy. But these are merely accidental faults, which can be removed without destroying the integrity of the whole system,—a system which has been advancing towards perfection, under the fostering care and wisdom of successive generations; and which, if it has not produced many FRANKLINS, has at least rendered the population of Boston proverbial for their love of order, and their general intelligence.

It is true the free schools of Boston are very liberally supported, and the people wish them to be so. *They* do not complain of the expense, for they want a *good* education for their children, not a cheap one. No doubt, they wish their rulers, by a prudent and economical course of policy, to husband well the resources of the city, and not squander them on extravagant schemes and doubtful speculations. I speak now of the great body of the people, upon whom the public burdens fall with the greatest weight; for I am not ignorant there are some individuals who think too much money is expended for the schools. I have heard such an opinion avowed by more than one member of the City Government,—and by no one else. In that quarter it has been said, that the public schools should be merely eleemosynary establishments, where nothing but the lowest elements of learning should be doled out to the children of poverty! The municipal officer who avows such a sentiment in this community, must be respected, at least, for his fairness and candor. From such a man, the friends of a liberal system of education have nothing to fear, for they always know where to find him. But it is from those who hold the same opinion, but have not the courage to avow it,—from those who would reduce the schools from their present rank by “indirection,”—that real danger is to be apprehended. And that this is the design of the present project of the Mayor, however it may be disguised and glossed over, is but too evident. He talks much indeed about “raising the standard of our common schools;” but how does he propose to do it? Why, simply by adding a splendid list of new studies, dismissing half the present teachers, and making them like the Monitorial Schools of New York! Nothing could be easier. Did our worthy Mayor ever see those same Monitorial schools which he is holding up to our view as models? or did he suppose no person in Boston had ever seen them?

The history of Mr. Quincy's Report is understood to be as follows. After I had tendered to the School Committee my resignation as Master of the High School for Girls, a sub-committee was raised to take into consideration the expediency of continuing the school. This committee made a report early in the month of December, which recommended that the school should be sustained. Upon the question of accepting this report, the committee were equally divided; and Mr. Quincy *shrunk from the performance of his official duty, as Chairman of the School Committee, and declined giving his casting vote!* This fact is worthy of being remembered. The fate of the school was then thrown wholly into his hands,—it hung on his individual decision. By raising his finger he could have saved it, and he would not. Now that he was called upon to act openly and decidedly, he shrunk back. His cherished feelings of hostility to the school would not permit him to sustain it, and at that particular juncture, he might have found it inconvenient to incur the responsibility of putting it down; for it was a popular institution, and during the month of December, there was not a little excitement on the subject. It was finally moved to refer the report to the next School Committee. On this question, the members were again equally divided, and the Mayor gave his casting vote for postponement. Soon after the organization of the present Board, the subject was again referred to a sub-committee, of which Mr. Quincy was the Chairman; and the result of their labors,—or rather of his labors,—will be found in the report now under consideration; the real object of which is to discontinue the High School for Girls, and the

incidental to "improve and elevate" the other schools. It has somehow happened, however, that the *accidental* circumstance has given a name to the document, and that the Committee appointed to examine into the expediency of continuing the High School for Girls, have reported on another and quite a different subject! The explanation is, that while Mr. Quincy had neither forgotten this school, nor his settled determination to put it down, he could not venture upon this measure—even after he had secured his election for another year—without informing the public that he was about to substitute something better in its place; and hence brings into review our whole system of Public Schools.

Grant that the High School for Girls was but an "experiment," it will not be denied that it was a very important one. It was the *first* institution of the kind; and as such, not only excited a lively interest in our own community and country, but even in England, and on the Continent, the establishment of this school was honorably noticed in the public journals. It is highly important, therefore, to the general interests of female education, that the true result of this "experiment" should be known. If it were indeed a "failure,"—that is, if our own experience has made it certain that it is either inexpedient or impracticable to extend to females a liberal course of education,—it should warn others not to make the attempt. But if the "failure" proceeded from other causes, it should be exposed, that the great cause of female education may suffer no detriment.

Can an "experiment" be said to have "failed" in any correct sense of the term, when it has fully answered all the purposes for which it was instituted? That this has been the fact with respect to the High School for Girls may be shown from the following abstract of the views and motives of the School Committee in undertaking the "experiment:"

1. On principles of general expediency, it was intended to make more liberal provisions for female education in the city, by furnishing the girls a school, "similar to the High School for Boys, as an object of ambition and profitable employment for three years of life, now inadequately occupied."

As to the success of the school so far as the proficiency of the scholars should be taken into the account, it is not for me to express an opinion. This point is willingly left to the decision of the public. Even Mr. Quincy has graciously allowed that the "conduct of the school was very satisfactory both to the parents of the children and to the School Committee." And that "as an object of ambition," its influence was even greater than had been anticipated, is evident enough from the whole tenor of the Mayor's report. In these respects, therefore, the expectations of the School Committee were fully realized; there was no failure here.

2. The Committee thought "it would have a happy effect in qualifying females, to become instructors in our public schools."

That it has had "this happy effect," is manifest from the fact that several of the young ladies, educated in the High School, are now engaged in teaching; while many others, thoroughly qualified for the business, would gladly be thus employed. Here, then, there was no "failure."

3. The Committee supposed "it would put to test the usefulness of monitorial or mutual instruction, and the practicability of introducing it into our public schools."

Mr. Quincy himself says "it effectually proved the advantage of the system of monitorial or mutual instruction;" and that it proved its "practicability" may be safely inferred from the strenuous efforts he is now making to accomplish that purpose. Surely, there was no "failure" here.

To what, then, is the "failure of the experiment" to be attributed? In what did it consist? The report states several circumstances,—all connected with the necessary accommodations for the school,—in which the projects of the committee seem to have failed.

In instituting a High School for Girls, of course it was supposed that a house for its accommodation would be eventually wanted; though not absolutely necessary "the first year of its operation." For *one* year,—*one* class,—an unoccupied story in the Bowdoin school-house would be sufficient. Who, for a moment, dreamed that the incapacity of that one room to accommodate the *three* annual classes would be construed into a failure of the project? Yet such has been the case. And more, when the sub-committee of the High School for Girls made their report in August, 1826, and stated that "so far the experiment had succeeded, beyond the most sanguine expectations of those who had first proposed it;" that "the interest of the

pupils had been so much excited, the attendance so constant, and the desire of remaining in the school so great, as often to lead to a great personal sacrifice of ease and pleasure, rather than forego its benefits;" that "the school had so firmly established itself in the confidence and affections of the citizens, as to encourage them to ask for an appropriation for its continued support and permanent accommodation;"—Mr. Quincy, the Chairman of the Committee to whom this report was referred, delayed making a report till *the October following*. And although the exigencies of the school were pressing, he postponed, in that report, making any provisions for the school, until the result of the next examination of candidates for admission, should be known! leaving the question of a room to accommodate the scholars to be settled *after* they were ready to occupy it!

In the same month, Mr. Quincy addressed a circular to the Masters of the Grammar Schools, from which the following extracts are made:

"Suggestions having been made that the effect of the High School for Girls is disadvantageous upon the character and prospects of the other schools in this metropolis:

1. By diminishing the zeal of the generality of the other females in these schools.
2. By taking away their most exemplary scholars.
3. By disqualifying the masters from a gradual introduction into these schools of the monitorial system, by thus removing from them the class of females best qualified to become monitors.
4. By reducing the other schools from the highest to a secondary grade, by early depriving them of those scholars in whom they have the greatest pride, and who are of the highest promise.

I am therefore directed to inquire whether there is any foundation for these suggestions, and what effect has been produced by the High School for Girls on the character and prospects of your school."

JOSIAH QUINCY,

*Chairman School Committee.*

No one can mistake the object of this most remarkable circular. First, "suggestions" are made to the masters, that the effect of the High School has been "disadvantageous" to the schools under their immediate care! By whom had these suggestions been made? Who was the author of them? Why was not the same alarm sounded with respect to the Latin and English High Schools which must have produced the same effect? I must acknowledge myself ignorant on what principle of human nature "the zeal of the best scholars would be *diminished*" by the prospect of an admission to the High School as a reward for their exertions! Finally the masters are reminded—all in sheer good-nature and simplicity of purpose, no doubt—that their schools were reduced to a "secondary grade," and that their most "exemplary scholars" were taken away! For what other class of scholars was the High School instituted? If it had not taken them away, it should indeed have been regarded, and justly, as a "failure."

The inference from this artful series of leading questions is irresistible, that it was Mr. Quincy's object to draw from the masters such a strong and united expression of opinions unfavorable to the High School for Girls as should seal its fate. He would thus accomplish *his* purpose; while upon *them* would fall the odium and responsibility of the act. I am well aware that, here and elsewhere, it is my misfortune to represent the character of Mr. Quincy, as a plain, frank, high-minded magistrate, in a questionable attitude, to use no stronger language. But for this I am not answerable. The *facts* are not of my making, they are on record. If the inferences are unjust or unwarranted, the opinion of an humble individual like myself will not give them currency.

But if Mr. Quincy wrote with these views, he mistook his men. With the exception of two or three, who responded as he probably wished and expected, the testimony for the teachers was, for the most part, in *favor* of the High School for Girls. However, Mr. Quincy proceeded to draw up a report, stating the "disadvantageous effects" of that institution on the other schools, and alluding to the *melancholy* and *unexpected* fact, that another class would demand admission in a few days!—whereat the reporter seems not a little puzzled,—as he cannot readily contrive how to bestow 130 girls in 130 seats already occupied! However, he is not yet "prepared to recommend that the High School should be abandoned, considering its apparent past success, and the general satisfaction of those who have enjoyed



its benefits. He then goes on to recommend instead certain measures, which he now declares to have changed every one of the original features of the plan. He laments that, "instead of a High School, as originally projected for the admission of girls between eleven and fifteen years of age, none were to be admitted until they were fourteen; that instead of remaining three years, the course of instruction was limited to one year." Was the High School really instituted for the especial benefit of girls of eleven years of age, as the Mayor intimates when he speaks of the exclusion of "girls of eleven years of age, which was one of the prominent objects of its institution;" or has he seized upon an accidental circumstance, of little account or importance in itself, that one more item may be added to his list of "failures?" The original regulation, which required that a candidate should be of a specific age to entitle her to admission, was little better than absurd, and this vote made the matter worse. No limit of age should ever have been fixed, under which a girl might not be a candidate for admission. No restriction should have been prescribed excepting that of scholarship. To exclude a girl from admission to the schools in this city, where she would be daily subject to the care and control of her parents, simply because she is too young, is to inflict a penalty on industry and talents. I know not on what principle the rule in question can be defended, unless it be the true policy to deter children from making a rapid advancement in knowledge. Abolish this arbitrary rule,—let scholarship alone be required for admission into the higher schools,—and their influence would be more strongly felt in every part of the system.

It may be remarked that Mr. Quincy's apprehensions relative to the expense of maintaining a High School are quite groundless. In another community, it might be an effectual way to bring a valuable literary institution into disrepute by magnifying its expense; not so here. Besides, the grand mistake in all the Mayor's estimates, that "two High School-houses would be necessary the first year," lies in taking it for granted that every girl who makes application is entitled to admission into the High School. Nothing is more certain than that the School Committee might confine the operations of the High School for Girls to a single house for all coming time;—by keeping the standard of qualifications sufficiently high. "But," says Mr. Quincy, "in proportion as the qualifications for admission are raised, the school becomes exclusive, and though nominally open to all, is in fact open to the few." This is an idea upon which he evidently dwells with great complacency. That school must indeed have a strong hold upon the public confidence, which does not become odious and unpopular, when the Chairman of the School Committee, in his official capacity, openly proclaims the "*favoritism*" and "*selection*" and "*exclusion*" of the principles upon which it is based. Ought such epithets as these to be applied to the High School, because it was not designed that *all* the girls in Boston should acquire *all* their education in it? Is there either "*selection*," or "*exclusion*," or "*favoritism*," in furnishing to every girl in the city exactly that kind and degree of instruction which she most needs? Mr. Quincy himself, in a communication made to the School Committee in 1826, recommending that a *thorough* knowledge of all the studies taught in the Grammar and Writing Schools should be required for admission to the High School, says, "by an adherence to this system, it cannot be doubted that the High School will, in one or two years, become, *what it ought to be*, a school for the instruction in those parts of science to which the common schools are from their constitutions inadequate, and for which they were not intended.

Now in the face of all these facts and many others like them, some of which will be given, and all of which *shall* if necessary,—after all of these contrivances by which the "failure" of the High School was compassed, "*et quorum pars magna fui*," Mr. Quincy may well say,—he next proceeds to talk about the "perfect fairness with which the experiment was conducted!" "for the most part under the same auspices which first adopted it!" The "changes" of which he speaks, have been proposed under the particular "auspices" of Mr. Quincy himself, and have been effected by his influence, authority and management,—yes, *management*; for he has in every instance when a committee was to be raised on the subject of the High School, either assumed the office of Chairman himself or appointed as Chairman some one supposed to be hostile to the institution. If there be any exception to this remark, it has not come to my knowledge, familiar as I am with the history of the school. At any rate the assertion is confidently and fearlessly made. If in-

justice is done, it can easily be shown, and it will give me pleasure to be convinced of my error.

As an example of the "perfect fairness" with which "the experiment was conducted," I will cite the course taken by the Mayor in regard to changing the hours of attendance at the High School. At the request of one hundred and seven of the parents of my scholars, I addressed a communication to the School Committee requesting that the school might have but one session, from 8 A. M. to 2 P. M., and giving a minute account of the reasons which led such an alteration of hours to be desirable. As soon as my letter had been read at the Board, Mr. Quincy hastily forestalled the remarks of other gentlemen, by expressing his decided disapprobation of "my very extraordinary proposition," as he was pleased to call it. One other member of the Committee was equally opposed to the change, and two others were doubtful as to its expediency; it was therefore determined to refer the subject to a special committee. Was it, as both usage and decorum required, referred to the sub-committee of the school? By no means; for they were in favor of the change, being well acquainted with the reasons for it. Mr. Quincy nominated a select committee for the purpose, *consisting of those three gentlemen who were not friendly to the measure proposed!* Two of them, however, became satisfied that the change was necessary, and reported accordingly; and the vote of the committee was nearly unanimous for accepting the report.

It has also been intimated that the High School was neglected, by these members of the committee, whose duty it was to watch over its interests and concerns. During the last year, it was not honored by a single visit from the sub-committee. The Chairman, Mr. Welsh, was in the room but twice, once when he introduced some members of the Legislature, and again when he came to witness the "Farce!" as he courteously termed the late exhibition. This speech came with peculiar propriety from the Chairman of the Committee of the High School, and was the only one delivered on the occasion! If the "experiment" were an "entire failure," why was not that fact announced at the closing scene, when the attentive and crowded assembly,—numerous beyond all precedent in this city on a similar occasion, could have borne testimony to the wisdom and correctness of the decision? Again, when Mr. Quincy wrote to the masters of all the other public schools, demanding of them how many times they had been visited by their respective sub-committees, was it merely accidental that he omitted the master of the High School? I pause for a reply.

I will give one more instance of neglect. When the High School was instituted, the text-books for the first year only were determined. The higher classes having studied and reviewed all these, became impatient to commence the next studies in order. All verbal applications having proved of no avail, a letter was addressed to Mr. Quincy, urging in strong terms the necessity of immediate attention to this subject. After pressing my request, and waiting in vain for a long time, I took upon myself the responsibility of introducing such text-books as seemed best adapted to the course of studies marked out; otherwise the girls in the High School would not have had a single book to study during the whole of the last year! The extent of this responsibility may be learned from the fact, that any teacher who violates any of the regulations of the School Committee, shall immediately be dismissed; and these regulations provide that the books used in the public schools shall be "*such and such only* as shall have met the approbation of their respective sub-committees."

While the *visits* of the committee were "few and far between," the only written communication from the board with which I was honored for more than a year, was a letter from the Mayor, reprimanding me "in good set terms," because the young ladies, of their own free will and motion, had agreed among themselves to wear black silk aprons at the exhibition! And many of the communications which I made to the board from time to time, were so far honored as to be transferred to the hands of Mr. Welsh, and nothing more was done in the matter! The teachers of large public schools meet with so many daily trials and vexations, that they may feelingly say, "sufferance is the badge of all our tribe;" but when to these is added the marked hostility or contemptuous neglect of their employers, their duties become too irksome to be endured, unless they are either more or less than men.

While our worthy Mayor was making an array of instances in which the "original intention" of the Committee, in respect to the High School for girls "had failed," he might have added one case of real "failure" of some importance to the



master at least. He might have said that the board "failed" to pay the salary which had been virtually promised, and which I had a right to expect. In establishing the High School, the intention of the Committee was distinctly expressed, that the master should be placed "in respect to salary upon a level with the masters of the Latin and English High Schools," who, it is well known, receive \$2,000 a year. And when I became a candidate for the situation, it was with this understanding. It was suggested, however, that it would be safer to *begin* with a smaller salary, since, if the school were successful, it might easily be increased, and with these expectations, I was satisfied to accept the office with a salary of \$1,500.

I am unwilling to speak of my services in the High School, yet may simply refer to their *amount* not to their *value*. The masters of the Latin and English High Schools have each under their immediate care from thirty to forty scholars; and each of them has several uahers to assist in the general superintendence of the school. I had under my sole care more than one hundred and thirty scholars, and in all circumstances was obliged to depend on my individual resources. Shall I be told that I had the assistance of scholars? So may every master have. But if the school had been badly conducted, would the scholars have been held responsible? I have no faith in the system which delegates the *authority* of the master to mere children, and *substitutes* the instruction and discipline of monitors for his personal services.

After the school had been fairly established, when the time for fixing the annual salaries approached, I requested the Committee to place mine on the basis originally proposed. I thought the request would be granted almost of course, but after a mature deliberation of several months, my letter was returned, with a very laconic endorsement upon it, that the request would not be granted! No reason was given for this very flattering and satisfactory decision. Indeed, I have never yet heard any reason assigned why the master of the High School for girls should be paid one quarter less or *any less salary* than is paid to the principals of the Latin and English High Schools. His services *should* have been as valuable, his attainments as excellent and varied as theirs. The school undeniably *deserved* as good a master as any in the city, and if the incumbent was not competent, it was a misfortune that might have easily been remedied.

But one course now remained for me—to send in my resignation, which I accordingly did in November, 1827. But I would beg leave to ask what would have constituted a *successful* "experiment" according to Mr. Quincy's ideas upon the subject? If the school had excited but little public interest—if few parents had wished to send their daughters there—if the mode of government and instruction had been unpopular—in a word, if its members, from any cause, had been so few that a single room would have furnished the necessary accommodations for the three annual classes, he would have regarded the experiment as completely successful! Should any one think this a distorted picture of Mr. Quincy's sentiments, I beg him to read his report and judge for himself. But as the school happened to be the reverse of all this, as the public voice was loud and emphatic in its favor, as the strongest testimony possible was heard from almost every class in the community that such a school was wanted and demanded, the "experiment" is denounced as "an entire failure," and the institution is to be annihilated, "as bodies perish through excess of blood!"

In concluding this review, I would again repeat that I was not moved to undertake it, either by personal interest or private feeling. It will readily be conceived that this opposition to the High School for girls manifested by some of the most influential members of the School Committee on all occasions, must have been a deep source of mortification and regret to a man whose hopes were all centred in its success, and who labored, regardless of fatigue and health and the pleasures of society, to satisfy the wishes and expectations of its friends so far as his limited abilities would permit. The fact of Mr. Quincy's hostility to the school is manifest, and his unfavorable account of the "experiment" will be respected accordingly. The integrity of his *motives* has not been questioned. Doubtless they have been pure and conscientious; a difference in opinion is no proof of dishonesty. But while it is granted that his opposition to the school may have been founded in a sincere belief that the interests of the city do not require such an institution, it cannot be denied, that in his zeal to put it down, he has suffered himself to pursue a course of measures which we should not have expected from an intelligent and high-minded magistrate.

Boston, 1828.

EBENEZER BAILEY.

Mr. Quincy, in his "*Municipal History of the Town and City of Boston, from Sept. 17th, 1830, to Sept. 17th, 1830,*" published in 1852, after giving the history of the High School for Girls up to January, 1828, refers to the views expressed in his inaugural address to the City Government in that month, to the effect,\* that "this school, instead of being for the benefit of the children of the whole community, was, in fact, comparatively for the benefit of a very few, and that, too, of a class who were best qualified, by intelligence, education and wealth, to provide for the high instruction of their own children," and continues:

Leading members of the City Council coincided in these general views; and at a meeting early in January, 1828, at the suggestion of the Mayor, the succeeding School Committee took into consideration the subject referred to them by the preceding Board; and when under discussion, say the records, "James Savage remarked that, though he had, as a member of the Common Council, voted an appropriation to the High School for Girls, it was mainly with a view to make a public experiment of the system of mutual instruction; that he was opposed to the High School for Girls, and to the whole system of instruction, as regards females; he therefore moved, that a sub-committee be raised to consider,—

"Whether the High School for Girls shall be continued, and the basis on which it shall be established;—

"Whether the girls may not well be allowed to remain at the Grammar Schools throughout the year;—

"And, whether the time of their continuance at these schools may not be advantageously extended."

This motion being adopted, the following Sub-Committee was appointed for its consideration, namely,—the Mayor, John Pickering, Samuel T. Armstrong, William B. Fowle, Samuel Barrett, Zabdiel B. Adams, and Amos Farnsworth.

This Committee made, on the twelfth of February, an elaborate report unanimously, in which was set forth, in detail, all the chief views and arguments connected with the subject; and declared their opinion, that the High School for Girls "ought not to be reestablished upon the basis of embracing the extent of time and the multiplied objects of education which the original plan of that school contemplated;" and that it ought not to be continued "on the restricted basis, as to time and objects, to which it was reduced by the vote of the seventeenth of November, 1826;" but that "it was far preferable to arrange all our Grammar and Writing Schools so that the standard of education in them may be elevated and enlarged, thereby making them all, as it respects females, in fact, high schools, in which each child may advance, according to its attainments, to the same branches recently taught in the High School for Girls. The Sub-Committee then entered upon a wide survey of the whole school system; and closed their report by recommending a series of resolutions, which, after undergoing some modifications, were adopted by the School Committee unanimously, in which the opinion of the School Committee was declared, that it was for the interest of the city, that the mutual or monitorial system of instruction should be introduced into the Boylston and Bowdoin Schools; that an appropriation be requested of the City Council, for preparing the school-houses for this purpose; and the Sub-Committee, who made the report, were reap-

\* "Every school, the admission to which is predicated upon the principles of requiring higher attainments, at a specified age or period of life, than the mass of children in the ordinary course of school instruction at that age or period can attain, is in fact a school for the benefit of the few, and not for the benefit of the many. Parents, who, having been highly educated themselves are, therefore, capable of forcing the education of their own children; parents, whose pecuniary ability enables them to educate their children at private schools, or who by domestic instruction are able to aid their advancement in the public schools, will for the most part enjoy the whole privilege. In form it may be general, but it will be in fact exclusive. The sound principle upon this subject seems to be, that the standard of public education should be raised to the greatest desirable and practicable height; but that it should be effected by raising the standard of our common schools."

pointed to carry the resolutions adopted into effect. On the third of June ensuing, "Mr. Savage moved that the girls be permitted to remain in the English Grammar Schools throughout the year." This motion being adopted, and measures taken for carrying into effect the views thus sanctioned, the project of the High School for Girls was abandoned, and the scale of instruction in the Common Schools in the city was gradually elevated and enlarged.

This result, and distinctness with which the Mayor had made known his opinion, concerning the inexpediency of establishing such a High School for Girls at the expense of the city, in opposition to the views and interests of a body of citizens of great activity, and of on inconsiderable influence, gave origin to party assaults upon the motives and conduct of that officer, which he noticed in his final address to the Board of Aldermen, on taking leave of the office, in January, 1829. The soundness of these views, and their coincidence with the permanent interests of the city, seem to be sanctioned by the fact, that twenty-three years (1851) have elapsed, and no effectual attempt, during that period, has been made for its revival, in the School Committee, or in either branch of the City Council.

The following are the passages in his address on taking leave of the office of Mayor, in January, 1829, to which Mr. Quincy refers in his History:—

But the High School for Girls has been suspended. As, on this topic, I have reason to think very gross misrepresentations and falsehoods have been circulated in every form of the tongue and the press, I shall speak plainly. It being in fact a subject on which my opinion has at no time been concealed.

This school was adopted declaredly as "an experiment." It was placed under the immediate care of its known authors. It may be truly said that its impracticability was proved before it went into operation. The pressure for admission at the first examination of candidates, the discontent of the parents of those rejected, the certainty of far greater pressure and discontent which must occur in future years, satisfied every reflecting mind that, however desirable the scheme of giving a high classical education, equal about to a college education, to all the girls of a city, whose parents would wish them to be thus educated at the expense of the city, was just as impracticable as to give such an one to all the boys of it at the city's expense. Indeed, more so, because girls, not being drawn away from the college by preparation for a profession or trade, would have nothing except their marriage to prevent their parents from availing of it. No funds of any city could endure the expense.

The next project was so to model the school as that, although professedly established for the benefit of *all*, it might be kept and maintained at the expense of the city for the benefit of the *few*. The School Committee were divided equally on the resulting questions. The subject was finally postponed by the casting vote of the Chairman. As all agreed, that new and great appropriations were necessary, if the school was to be maintained according to its original conception, the Chairman was directed to make a report on the whole subject to the City Council. The report indicated that, in such case, appropriations were indispensably necessary, but did not recommend them, because a majority of the Committee were not favorable to the project. That report was printed and circulated throughout the city. A year has elapsed, and not an individual in either branch of the City Council has brought forward the question of its revival by moving the necessary appropriation.

No shield has ever before been protruded by the individual principally assailed as a defense against the calumnies which have been circulated on this subject. It has now been alluded to, more for the sake of other honorable men, who have, for a like cause, been assailed by evil tongues and evil pens, than for his own.

In all this there is nothing uncommon or unprecedented. The public officer who from a sense of public duty, dares to cross strong interests in their way to gratification at the public expense, always has had, and ever will have, meted to him the same measure. The beaten course is, first, to slander, in order to intimidate; and if that fails, then to slander, in order to sacrifice. He who loves his office better than his duty will yield and be flattered as long as he is a tool. He who loves his duty better than his office will stand erect and take his fate.

All schools requiring high qualifications as the condition of admission, are essentially schools for the benefit, comparatively, of a very few. The higher the qualification, the greater the exclusion. Those whose fortunes permit them to avail themselves of private instruction for their children, during their early years,—men highly educated themselves, who have leisure and ability to attend to the education of their own children, and thus raise them at the prescribed age to the required qualification,—will chiefly enjoy the privilege. To the rest of the community, consisting of parents not possessing these advantages, admission to them is a lottery, in which there is a hundred blanks to a prize. The scheme to reduce the school to an attendance of one year, seems to be a needless multiplication of schools and of expense; as it is plainly far better that a year should be added to the continuance in the common schools, and their course of instruction proportionably elevated.

The great interest of society is identified with her common schools. These belong to the mass of the people. Let the people take care, lest the funds which ought to be devoted exclusively to the improvement and elevation of these common schools, thus essentially theirs, be diverted to schools of high qualification. Under whatever pretense established, their necessary tendency is to draw away, not only funds, but also interest and attention from the common schools. *The sound principle upon this subject seems to be, that the standard of public education should be raised to the greatest desirable and practicable height; but that it should be effected by raising the standard of the common schools.*

For a period of twenty-three years, as was stated by Mr. Quincy, in the above extract from his History, no effectual attempt was made in the School Committee, or in either branch of the City Council, to revive the High School for Girls. But in the report of the committee to make the annual examination in May, 1847, (drawn up by Joseph M. Wightman,) it is suggested that "precisely the same studies are taught to both boys and girls, without regard to the difference in their constitution and physical strength, or the adaptation of the studies to their peculiar positions in life;" and then lays down the principle that "a school for boys should comprehend the studies which will be most useful to them as men." Among the deviations in practice from this principle, the report complains that the studies of the girls in the public school are "too extensive and too difficult." "Many portions of arithmetic and the whole of algebra, are as unnecessary to female education in our Grammar Schools, as would be the science of engineering, or a course of law studies." If a higher class of studies is required for a portion of the girls, to qualify them for teachers, or other peculiar duties, the committee are of opinion that a High School, similar in rank to that for boys, but adapted to female education, should be established, to which might be transferred some of the studies now pursued in the Grammar Schools." The report suggests as an aid to check the growing evils "of extravagant family expenses, and entire disregard of the dictates of prudence," that girls "must be taught habits of industry and economy, as wanted to the faithful performance of the higher duties of life. As one of the means to accomplish this, let plain sewing be taught and practiced in all of the classes in the school—let prizes be awarded for it—let an important and high rank

be given to it in our estimation, and in a short time, the ambition of the pupils will be, to excel in this most legitimate of female avocations. Its practice will relieve the tediousness of mental exercise in school, and its effects will be to render home the abode of comfort and happiness, from the industry, order and neatness which will pervade it."

On the 2nd of February, 1848, S. H. Jenks, G. B. Emerson and R. Soule, Jr., were appointed a Special Committee "to consider the expediency of establishing a High School for Girls, with details and estimates in relation thereto." This committee reported, on the 3d of May, in favor of establishing two such schools, and of providing for the accommodation of the same—one in the large upper hall of the Quincy Grammar School, and the other in a similar hall of the Hancock School—each school to receive 250 pupils, and the annual expense for both not to exceed \$5,000. The committee maintain that the law of the state requiring every town containing five hundred families to maintain, in addition to its ordinary district schools, a town school of a higher grade "for the benefit of all the inhabitants," was not complied with in Boston, inasmuch as the Latin and English High Schools were not open for girls, and that this exclusion, without other public opportunities for similar instruction, was unequal and impolitic. Without such opportunities women could not become the teachers of the coming generation, and "the fit civilizers of mankind." They can see no reason why the faculties of females should be deprived of the intellectual food provided for those of males; and on the other hand, they assert that the cultivation of these faculties will elevate the female character, and through that elevation society will unspeakably be benefited. On the 24th of May, the same committee reported in favor of appropriating \$2,491 for seating and equipping generally the halls above specified for two schools, and \$6,500 for two principal preceptors of the same qualification prescribed for the Latin and English High Schools, and six female assistants. The course of study recommended, besides a review of the branches pursued in the Grammar Schools, embraced "algebra, natural history, natural and intellectual philosophy, astronomy, botany, chemistry, moral science, and the Latin, Greek, and French languages." The preceptor of each school was required "to give such pupils as may desire to enter a class for the purpose, suitable lectures on the art of imparting instruction to children, with such practical directions and exemplifications, as may tend to prepare and qualify said pupils to become teachers of youth." These recommendations of the sub-committee were adopted by the whole board, but the City Government failed to make the necessary appropriations.

On the 12th of January, 1849, a committee consisting of Messrs.

Jenks, Spence and Neale, were appointed to investigate the subject still further; this committee reported in favor of the immediate establishment of two seminaries for the higher instruction of girls, "as demanded by the judgment of the community, the dictates of justice and the positive injunctions of law." They accordingly ask the appropriation of \$3,000 to fit up the halls before recommended, and of \$7,000 for the current expenses of the institutions. No action was had on these recommendations by the City Authorities.

In his first annual report to the School Committee, submitted Dec. 30th, 1851, the Superintendent of Public Schools, (Nathan Bishop,) recommended "the establishment of a Normal School, as a part of the Boston system of Public Instruction." "It is due to the inhabitants of this city to establish an institution in which such of their daughters as have completed with distinguished success the course of studies in the Grammar Schools, may, if they are desirous of teaching, qualify themselves in the best manner for this important employment." This recommendation was referred to a Special Committee, (composed of Messrs. Eaton, Tracy, Simonds, Simpson and Hahn,) which reported in June, 1852, in favor of establishing "a school for the single object of preparing teachers for our public schools," and "that it should be resorted to by those only who may desire to qualify themselves for teaching." "It should provide for its pupils such a course of study as would demand for its completion the earnest and devoted application of at least two years; one which would insure not only a thorough acquaintance with all the elementary, therefore, for the most essential, branches in which they may be called upon to give instruction, but which should give such a knowledge of the physical laws of health, of which there is now among many teachers such lamentable ignorance, as would enable them to take proper care of the pupils under their charge; such information in regard to the true method of calling into healthful exercise the various faculties of the mind, as would not allow one to be comparatively dormant, and urge another into over activity, and thus give a one-sided development to the mind; such a preparation for unfolding and invigorating the moral character of their pupils, as should best fit them for successfully performing the duties growing out of the various relations of life; and such views of the true character of their future vocation—of its dignity, of its power to influence deeply, and it may be ineffaceably for good or for evil, and hence of its high responsibility, as while exciting a modest distrust of their own qualifications, should at the same time arouse in them an earnest and generous determination to perform their duties with strict fidelity, and to devote to their work the whole strength of their minds and hearts."



The report was accepted by the School Committee, and on the 8th of July, 1852, the City Government authorized the establishment of a Normal School for female teachers, as a part of the system of Public Instruction.

In September, a sub-committee on the Normal School, composed of Russell, Derby and Simpson, were directed to organize the school for two hundred pupils, who were to be admitted at the age of sixteen years, after being found qualified in the studies of the Grammar Schools. The course of study and instruction prescribed, embraced a thorough review of the studies of the Grammar School, and collateral branches important to explain and illustrate the same, with special reference to instruction in the art of teaching those studies. After having satisfactorily mastered the required studies, pupils were permitted to proceed to the study of English literature, intellectual and moral philosophy, the French language, the natural sciences, and of some departments of mathematics. Music, and drawing, and lectures on physiology and hygiene, were to form a part of the regular course. The school thus organized went into operation in the fall of 1852, under the principalship of Loring Lathrop, and three assistants, and a model school under the charge of Miss Lucy D. Osborn.

But the establishment of the Normal School for female teachers did not satisfy the friends of the High Schools for Girls, who in 1853 presented a petition numerously signed, asking for such a school. This petition was referred to a committee to which J. Thomas Stevenson was chairman, who prepared a report, in which it was claimed that the city already provided in the Grammar Schools for Girls, a course of instruction as advanced as that given in schools denominated "high" in other cities of the State, and in the Normal School, "a thorough review of the studies of the Grammar School, with the addition of such collateral branches as are important for the explanation and illustration of those studies." The report concludes by discouraging any present extension of the means of instruction for girls. But in 1854, the School Committee converted the Normal School into a High School for Girls, by opening it to all who possessed the required qualifications for admission without restriction as to any intention or wish to engage in teaching. It was provided at the same time, that a Normal Class should be formed for the latter. The report of the School Committee for 1861, contains the following notice of the Girls' High and Normal School, after speaking of the Latin and English High School for boys.

While our city was thus liberally providing for the education of her sons, carrying them on from the Primary, through the Grammar Schools, to the Latin or the English High School, her daughters, after learning all that was taught in the Grammar Schools, were compelled to resort to private schools for instruction in the

higher branches of knowledge. In order to give them the same advantages as the boys, and at the same time to train up and qualify teachers, the GIRLS' HIGH and NORMAL SCHOOL was instituted in 1852. The course, at first limited to two years, was afterwards extended to three—the scholars passing through a Junior, Middle, and Senior year. The instructors are now fourteen in number, a master, nine female assistants, and four male teachers who have charge of the departments of Drawing, French, German, and Vocal Music. An examination of candidates for admission is held on the two days following the Annual Exhibitions and Festival in July; when the candidates, the greater part of whom are graduates from the Grammar Schools, are required to prepare written answers to printed questions in Geography, Arithmetic, Grammar, and History. They are also examined in Reading, Writing, Spelling, and Oral Arithmetic. More than one thousand pupils have been admitted to this school. At the examination in July, there were one hundred and fifty-six applicants; ninety-nine were admitted unconditionally; thirty-seven on the condition of passing a second examination in one or more studies, and twenty were rejected. At the second examination in September, several new candidates presented themselves, with those conditionally received; and the whole number admitted this year is one hundred and fifty-two. The number of scholars has increased from one hundred and ninety in 1858, to three hundred and forty, twenty of whom have completed the prescribed course, and are permitted to continue their connection with the school, as an advanced class.

The pupils, after carefully reviewing their previous studies, are carried through an extended course of Natural, Intellectual, and Moral Philosophy, Astronomy, Chemistry, History, English Literature, Drawing, and Music, and the Latin, French, and German languages. They are encouraged to pursue the investigation of subjects beyond the limit of text-books, to form their own views, to express them freely and clearly, and to maintain them firmly. One of the most instructive and interesting exercises of this school is the analysis and criticism of the thoughts and sentiments of standard English authors, by the classes, under the supervision of their teachers. Questions of philosophy, points of history, and matters of taste are freely canvassed. There is no better method than this for bringing out the hidden powers of the mind, giving quickness and activity to the thoughts, and communicating the ability of expressing the ideas readily, and without confusion or hesitation. Not only is there a most thorough and complete education given in this institution; but, by the peculiar methods of teaching in use here, the pupils are eminently fitted to impart knowledge to others. The training of all the mental faculties is found to be the best preparation for instructing children. It requires a large amount of learning, remarkable clearness of thought, a firm grasp of ideas, a well-disciplined mind, a thorough knowledge of the English language, and accuracy in the use of words, to teach properly even the youngest pupils in our schools. Believing that a good Normal School, in which assistants for the Grammar Departments, and instructors of the Primary Schools are prepared for their several duties, must be a High School, the projectors of this institution appropriated the greater part of the course to the higher branches. A portion of the time, however, is given to the Normal Department. Special instruction in the theory and practice of teaching is imparted to all the young ladies; and they are allowed to be absent in some cases for a few days, in others for several weeks, in order to act as substitutes for the instructors in the city schools. Three hundred and twenty-two have, at different times, availed themselves of this privilege. At the examinations of candidates for the office of teachers, graduates from this school invariably stand among the first; and their success in the various positions which they have held, and the promotion of sixteen of them already to the post of head-assistant, prove that the school is admirably fulfilling both the objects for which it was instituted. The assistant teachers of this school are all graduates of the school. In October, 1859, when it became necessary to appoint new instructors on account of the increase in the number of scholars, an examination was held after public notice given in the newspapers. The eight young ladies who stood highest at that examination, had been educated at this school; and from their number the four assistants, since appointed, have been selected.

By the Report of the City Auditor for 1861, it appears that the salaries of the teachers for the Girls' High and Normal School for that year, amounted to \$8,287.50.

The following Regulations of the Girls' High and Normal School, are taken from the "RULES of the School Committee and Regulations of the Public Schools of Boston for 1861."

REGULATIONS OF THE GIRLS' HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL, 1861.

SECTION 1. This school is situated in Mason Street. It was instituted in 1852, with the design of furnishing to those pupils who have passed through the usual course of studies at the Grammar Schools for girls, and at other girls' schools in this city, an opportunity for a higher and more extended education, and also to fit such of them as desire to become teachers. The following are the regulations of this school, in addition to those common to all the schools.

SECT. 2. The instructors shall be, a master, and as many assistants as may be found expedient; but the whole number of assistants shall not exceed the ratio of one for every thirty pupils.

SECT. 3. The examination of candidates for admission to the schools, shall take place annually, on the Wednesday and Thursday next succeeding the day of the annual exhibition of the Grammar Schools in July.

SECT. 4. Candidates for admission must be over fifteen, and not more than nineteen years of age. They must present certificates of recommendation from the teachers whose schools they last attended, and must pass a satisfactory examination in the following branches, viz.: Spelling, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, and History.

SECT. 5. The examination shall be conducted by the instructors of the school, both orally and from written questions previously prepared by them, and approved by the Committee of the school. It shall be the duty of the said Committee to be present and to assist at the examination, and the admission of candidates shall be subject to their approval.

SECT. 6. The course of studies and instruction in this school shall be as follows:—

*Junior Class.* Reading, Spelling, and Writing continued. Arithmetic, Geography, and Grammar reviewed. Physical Geography, Natural Philosophy, Analysis of Language and Structure of Sentences. Synonymes. Rhetoric. Exercises in English Composition. History. Latin, begun. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music.

*Middle Class.* Natural Philosophy, continued. English Literature. Algebra. Moral Philosophy. Latin, continued. French, begun, (instruction given by a native French teacher.) Rhetoric, with exercises in Composition, continued. Physiology, with Lectures. General History. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music. Reading standard English works, with exercises in Criticism.

*Senior Class.* Latin and French, continued. Geometry. General History. Intellectual Philosophy. Astronomy. Chemistry, with Lectures. Exercises in Composition. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music. Exercises in Criticism, comprising a careful examination of works of the best English authors. Instruction in the Theory and Practice of Teaching. Such instruction in Music shall be given to all the pupils as may qualify them to teach Vocal Music in our Public Schools.

SECT. 7. The sessions of the school shall begin at 9 o'clock, A. M., and close at 2 o'clock, P. M., except on Wednesday and Saturday, when the school shall close at 1 o'clock.

SECT. 8. The plan of study shall be arranged for three years. Pupils who have attended for that period, and who have completed the course in a manner satisfactory to the teachers and the Committee on the school, shall be entitled to receive a diploma or certificate to that effect, on leaving school.

#### IV. FEMALE EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF OHIO.

Compiled from Report of School Commissioner (Anson Smyth,) August 31, 1862.

1. Out of 928,890 youth between five and twenty-one years of age, 723,669 were enrolled in the Common Schools, in the year ending August 31, 1862. Of this number (723,669) 348,147, were females.

2. Of the 21,390 teachers employed in the Common Schools during the year, 10,931 were females.

3. In twenty-three incorporated institutions, styled Colleges and Seminaries, (all designed to give to females an education superior to that given in the Academies and High Schools for boys, and several claiming to give an appropriate and equivalent instruction to that given in colleges for male youth,) there were 1,636 pupils in the regular courses, which extended through four, and in two institutions to five years, besides 1,169 in partial and preparatory courses. These institutions have large buildings, many possess extensive grounds, and some are well equipped with the best apparatus of instruction, and the best facilities of residence. These grounds and buildings cost \$876,000, approximating closely to the value of the colleges for males, which are returned at \$932,000. Of these institutions, for female pupils, we give the tabulated statements of the Commissioner.

Of the organization, studies, and discipline, including the residence and domestic training of the pupils, of the Female College at College Hill, the Western Female Seminary at Oxford, and the Female Department of Oberlin College, as types of the studies and aims of female education in one of the largest and most advanced communities of the country, we hope to give a detailed account hereafter. These institutions for female education have marked peculiarities which distinguish them from seminaries having the same general aims in the Eastern States and in Europe.

4. These statistics of female education do not include a large number of private institutions of different grades, academic, and otherwise, of which, several numerously attended, are under the auspices of the Catholic Church.

FEMALE SEMINARIES AND COLLEGES IN OHIO, FOR THE YEAR 1902.

NAME OF INSTITUTION.	Location.	When opened.	Years occupied in regular Seminary Course.	Pupils pursuing regular course of studies.	In partial or preparatory course.	Graduates in 1902.	Total number of graduates.	Number of teachers.	Value of buildings, sites, etc.	Endowments, exclusive of buildings, etc.	Volumes in libraries.	Value of apparatus.	Annual expense, exclusive of "extras."	Date of next commencement.
Steubenville Female Seminary,.....	Steubenville,.....	1829	3	66	65	16	443	12	\$25,000	.....	4,000	\$3,000	\$175	March 27
Granville Female College,.....	Granville,.....	1832	4	72	59	10	300	10	20,000	.....	2,000	800	160	June 24
Springfield Female College,.....	Springfield,.....	1834	4	52	53	7	68	4	15,000	.....	500	.....	.....	June 26
Putnam Ladies' Seminary,.....	Putnam,.....	1835	5	.....	64	7	170	5	25,000	\$10,000	1,000	1,000	175	July 9
Female Department of College,.....	Oberlin,.....	1835	4	213	226	28	311	12	.....	.....	2,000	1,000	.....	Aug. 25
Wesleyan Female College,.....	Cincinnati,.....	1842	4	90	39	16	315	15	65,000	.....	3,000	600	.....	June 18
Cooper Female Seminary,.....	Dayton,.....	1845	4	30	20	8	50	7	15,000	.....	500	200	160	Sept. 5
Hillsboro Female College,.....	Hillsboro,.....	1847	4	80	10	4	47	6	40,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	Aug. 31
Ohio Female College,.....	College Hill,.....	1849	4	116	45	17	140	20	80,000	.....	3,000	.....	200	June 11
Oxford Female Institute,.....	Oxford,.....	1849	4	80	58	2	140	8	10,000	.....	300	500	160	June 18
Cincinnati Female Seminary,.....	Cincinnati,.....	1850	4	90	35	.....	48	11	30,000	.....	3,000	5,000	.....	June 20
Xenia Female College,.....	Xenia,.....	1850	4	74	44	2	48	6	15,000	.....	300	500	132	June 25
Springfield Female Seminary,.....	Springfield,.....	1852	4	70	96	13	131	9	25,000	.....	800	500	150	June 24
Ohio Wesleyan Female College,.....	Delaware,.....	1853	4	52	194	18	88	7	42,000	.....	.....	500	.....	July 23
Oxford Female College,.....	Oxford,.....	1854	4	50	16	2	66	8	100,000	.....	1,000	1,000	175	June 24
Cleveland Female Seminary,.....	Cleveland,.....	1854	5	108	.....	2	17	13	40,000	.....	600	1,500	200	June 18
Mount Vernon Female Seminary,.....	Mount Vernon,.....	1854	4	20	15	.....	26	4	12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	June 18
Mansfield Female Seminary,.....	Mansfield,.....	1854	4	100	25	3	30	7	30,000	.....	500	300	160	June 24
Glendale Female College,.....	Glendale,.....	1854	3	26	27	3	53	3	42,000	.....	1,500	800	500	June 18
Mount Auburn Young Ladies' Institute,.....	Mount Auburn,.....	1855	.....	152	27	6	15	13	75,000	.....	1,500	1,200	500	June 20
Western Female Seminary,.....	Oxford,.....	1855	3	101	.....	9	103	10	80,000	20,000	679	.....	100	July 9
Union Female Seminary,.....	Xenia,.....	1858	3	40	35	3	10	7	20,000	.....	.....	.....	160	June 24
Lake Erie Female Seminary,.....	Palmyra,.....	1859	3	54	16	12	33	6	70,000	.....	250	.....	90	July 16
Total,.....				1,726	1,169	191	2,552	208	\$74,000	\$0,000	27,429	17,500		

## V. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

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THE experience of every country where the schools, public, parochial, or private, have attained any high degree of excellence, and the teachers are respected for their personal and professional worth, has demonstrated that early and continued success in the work of instruction, and in the management of educational institutions generally, demands not only certain qualities of mind and character, and an amount and kind of scholarship equal at least to the standard aimed at in the schools, but special preparation in knowledge and methods, and continued efforts at self and professional improvement to obviate the inevitable tendencies of an isolated and monotonous occupation. To secure this preliminary training, and progressive improvement in individual teachers, to exclude from the profession unworthy and incompetent members, to give opportunities of a generous genial culture as the basis of all special studies, and the source of a powerful unconscious tuition in manner, character, and daily life, to protect all who follow the business of teaching from pecuniary anxiety, and increase their means of personal happiness and social influence, various institutions, agencies, and measures, legal and voluntary, have been resorted to, at different times, and in different countries. We here briefly enumerate some of these Institutions and Agencies, which will be more particularly described elsewhere.

I. Religious Communities, or Associations of persons, who, having served a severe and prolonged novitiate, or preparatory course to test their vocation, devote themselves for life, and without pecuniary fee, or worldly reward, to the business of instruction. Such were the Benedictines, the Hieronymians, or Brethren of the Common Life, the Oratorians, the Brothers and Sisters of St. Francis of Paola, and other religious orders which have done their work, and given way to the Jesuits, the Ursulines, the Brethren of the Christian Schools, (*Institut des Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes*), and other teaching communities, whose schools are found in every country where the Catholic Church is established. The Mother House of



each of these orders, where the novitiate is served, is, strictly speaking, a Normal School, having its *norma*, or rule or pattern of professional life and practice. It is at the same time the home, where help, and rest and health are sought by its members in need, exhaustion, and old age. Several of these Houses preceded the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries which are the creation of the State.

II. Institutions, supported or aided by the government for the purpose of training teachers for the schools which the State has undertaken to establish to protect itself from the ignorance of any portion of its people, or to add to its resources of strength and production the cultivated intellect and restrained passions of all its citizens. These institutions are called by different names, and are organized and managed on different plans in different countries, but in all, their aims and functions are special, viz., to give to young men and women, found qualified in age, character, and scholastic attainments, a practical knowledge of the labors and duties of the school-room. In most of the German states, where they first received governmental recognition, they are called Teachers' Seminaries or Normal Schools, although the latter designation was originally applied in Austria, to a select class in certain prominent schools composed of pupils who were receiving special instruction, and at the same time were employed as assistants in the school. In England they are called Training Colleges.

III. Classes, or departments in one or more of the best schools in the chief towns, composed of scholars who have mastered the studies of the school, and show an aptness and desire to teach. These pupils receive additional and special instruction, and are employed at a small and increasing compensation, first as assistants, then as under masters, and finally as head masters. This plan of training teachers for the public schools, especially in large towns, is the main reliance of the government in Austria and Holland, and with some modifications by which the best pupil-teacher become Queen's Scholars in the Training Colleges, in England. It is an admirable preliminary test and preparation of candidates for the regular Normal School, and might profitably be made supplementary to the latter.

IV. Courses of Lectures in all Higher Seminaries of Learning on the History, Principles, and Art of Education—designed particularly for such students as propose to teach or may be called on to organize and administer schools. Such lectures are delivered in many universities of Germany, and theological students are required to attend as a necessary preparation for the right performance of the

duties of school inspectors and local school committees, which are always, although not exclusively, composed of clergymen. Such instruction, whether given by lectures, or by class-book and recitation, should be deemed essential to graduation in any College or Academy or High School, which are the natural sources to supply teachers to the schools below. Originally the degree of Bachelor and Master of Arts were evidence of the scholarship and authority of the holders to establish, teach, and govern schools. Such knowledge should enter into the training of all liberally educated American citizens, whose services are in constant demand as trustees and committees of schools of different grade. When such courses are supplemented by practical training in a Normal School, it forms a valuable part of the professional education of a teacher.

V. Itinerating Normal Agents and Organizers of Schools, to hold Teachers' Institutes, to act as Inspectors of Schools, assist in the establishment of new institutions, and imparting life and efficiency to schools which have run down under inefficient teachers, and bring up to a normal standard the schools and the public sentiment of particular districts. The efforts of an indefatigable Normal Agent like William S. Baker, so highly appreciated in Connecticut and Rhode Island, or of a School Organizer like those sent out by the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, or the British and Foreign School Society, by familiar conversation with teachers, and practical illustrations in their schoolrooms, of improved methods of arranging the studies, and conducting schools will reach more widely than a Normal School.

VI. Teachers' Institutes, or gatherings of teachers, both for conference and instruction, for a period of not less than one, nor more than four weeks, in successive years in different localities, and including in its operations school officers and parents. Such gatherings of teachers, old and young of both sexes, and of schools of different grades; in such numbers as will develop the sympathies and power of a common pursuit, and yet not so large as to exclude the freedom of individual thought and action; for a period of time, long enough to admit of a systematic plan of operations, and yet not so protracted as to prove a burdensome expense, or an interruption to other engagements; under the direction of men, whose claim to respect and continued attention is their large experience and acknowledged success as educators and teachers; in a course of instruction, at once theoretical and practical, combined with opportunities of inquiry, discussion, and familiar conversation—such gatherings of teachers so organized and conducted as to exclude professional jealousy, and at the same time to enlist the coöperation and attendance of school

officers and parents, by assigning to the evening lectures and discussions, all topics of general interest to the community, as well as to teachers, will begin the work of renovation and improvement at once in the home and the school, in the heads and hearts of parents, in the enthusiasm, enlarged knowledge and practical skill of teachers, and in the well considered and liberal action of school officers, and the public generally.

VII. A system of examination, by which only persons of the right spirit, character, attainments, and practical skill, are licensed to teach, combined with modes of school inspection, by which incompetent and unworthy members are excluded from the profession.

VIII. Plans of associations of the teachers of a school, city, or larger district, for periodical conferences for mutual and professional improvement, and for occasional visits to each others' schools.

IX. Legal recognition of the true value of the teacher's office, by exemption from all services which interfere with the full performance of its duties, or imply that the constant care and highest nurture of children and youth are of secondary interest; and by provision for its permanence and adequate compensation, independent of the negligence or parsimony of parents and municipal authorities.

X. A system of promotion from a less desirable school, to one more so in respect to studies, location, and salary, dependent not upon favoritism, but upon an open and impartial examination.

XI. Access to books on the theory and practice of teaching, and to educational periodicals, by which the young and inexperienced teacher is made acquainted with the views of experienced teachers in his own and other times, in his own and other countries.

XII. Facilities for the acquisition of some industrial pursuit, out of school hours, which will add to the happiness and emoluments of the teacher, without diminishing his personal influence as the educator of the community.

XIII. A system of savings, aided and guaranteed by the government, but founded in habits of thrift and forecast in the teachers, by which provision is made for themselves in old age, or sickness, and for their families, in case of death.

By these and other institutions, agencies, and means, already recognized or established to some extent, the office of teacher has been greatly elevated in usefulness and in social and pecuniary consideration. It is the object of this work to bring together the experience of different states in this most important department of the whole field of educational labor, as presented in official documents, and the observations of intelligent and trustworthy educators.

## VI. TEACHER'S CONFERENCES

### AND OTHER MODES OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT.

#### I. CITY OF CHICAGO.

THE RULES OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION in the city of Chicago provide—in addition to a weekly meeting of all the teachers of each of the large graded schools, both High and District, in their several school-houses, for the purposes of discussing and illustrating methods of discipline and instruction, and the general interests of the school—for an *Institute* to be held as follows:

It shall be the duty of all the teachers of the Public Schools to meet on the first Saturday of each school month, at the High School building, for the purpose of holding an Institute for their own improvement in teaching, under the direction of the Board of Education. The exercises shall commence at 9 A. M., and close at 12 M., with a recess of twenty minutes. Before the close of each Institute, the Superintendent shall adopt such measures as he shall deem best to secure a full and accurate account of the attendance of the teachers. At the close of each term, the Superintendent shall report to the Board all cases of absence or tardiness, or leaving before the close of the Institute, that have occurred during the term.

Of the operations of these Monthly Institutes, and other means of professional improvement among the teachers of the Public Schools of Chicago, the Superintendent (WILLIAM H. WELLS,) in his Annual Report, submitted December 31st, 1892, thus speaks:

#### *Monthly Meetings of Teachers.*

The Monthly Institutes of Teachers have been held during the year, in accordance with the rules of the Board, and the attendance of the teachers has, in most cases, been regular and prompt. The time has been occupied with model exercises of classes from the different schools, drill exercises of classes composed of teachers, reading the "*Chicago Teacher*," conducted by the ladies, lectures, discussions, and remarks by the Superintendent.

The number of teachers is now so much increased that it is found impracticable to introduce drill exercises in any portion of the course of study, that will be equally profitable to all. Teachers of the first and second grade classes have no special interest in exercises adapted to the ninth and tenth grade classes, and vice versa. To remedy this evil, we have adopted the plan of having the general exercises of the Institute during the first part of the forenoon, with all the teachers together, and dividing the Institute into five sections during the last hour for drill exercises and discussions adapted to the wants of the several sections. Teachers of the first and second grade classes constitute the first section; those of the third and fourth grade classes, the second section, and so on

through all the grades. Each section, embracing two grades of the course, has one or more drill exercises every month. By this arrangement, we have five exercises going forward simultaneously, and the teachers of each section take up only those subjects in which they are particularly interested.

The management of the Institute has been left by the Board in the hands of the Superintendent, and it has been my uniform practice to invite a committee of the teachers to aid me in arranging the successive programmes of exercises. In most other cities, the programme of exercises is always prepared by the Superintendent. This is a safeguard against the introduction of discussions upon the policy and measures of the Board of Education, and other irrelevant topics. Except in the matter of attendance, the course I have adopted has given to the Institute much of the freedom of a voluntary association, and thus far I have found very few evils resulting from it. I do not recollect a single instance during the past year in which the committee have desired to introduce a subject for discussion that I did not approve.

The teachers have performed cheerfully the parts assigned them, and the interest of the meetings has been well sustained through the year.

The advantages resulting from frequent meetings of teachers, especially in cities and larger towns, are now generally admitted, and every teacher who is desirous of advancing in his profession, finds that he can derive important aid from a careful comparison of his own views and methods with those of other teachers. But notwithstanding this general agreement of opinion respecting the value and importance of Teachers' Institutes, there is still very great diversity of practice in different cities and towns respecting the frequency or infrequency of holding them, the manner in which they are conducted, and the voluntary or involuntary character of the attendance.

For the purpose of ascertaining the opinions of prominent educators on this subject, and the practice of different cities, I recently sent out letters of enquiry to nearly all the principal cities of the Northern States. The answers received from over one hundred different towns, have put me in possession of very full and satisfactory information on all the points to which I have alluded. The following is a condensed summary of the results:

1. In most of the cities of the Western States, the engagements with teachers are made with the express understanding that they shall attend Institutes for professional improvement as often as once a month. These meetings are usually held on Saturdays, and the sessions are from two to three hours in length. In most cases, an account is kept of the attendance of the teachers, and absences from the Institutes are regarded the same as absences from any of the regular sessions of the schools. In many Western cities, more than one half of the whole number, the Institutes are held as often as twice in a month; and in as many as ten or twelve cities, every week.

In more than half of the cities of the Middle States, the teachers are required to attend Institutes as often as once a month, but this practice, except in Pennsylvania,\* is not so general in the Middle as in the Western States.

In the New England States, there is not one city in ten in which the rules of the School Directors require the teachers to hold meetings for professional

\* An Act was passed in April, 1862, requiring all the teachers of the public schools to devote two Saturdays of each month to exercises or Institutes for their mutual improvement.

improvement so often as once a month, and in most Eastern cities, the Directors have no rule on this subject.\*

2. Another means of improving the qualifications of teachers, is the organization of Saturday Normal Classes, which all teachers of limited experience, or those holding certificates below the first grade, are expected to attend.†

In some cities, attendance at the Normal Classes is optional with the teachers, and in others it is required by the rules of the Directors.

In a few cases, the weekly Normal Classes are designed to benefit both the assistants already employed in the schools, and the candidates for situations in them. In Baltimore, no applicant is eligible to an appointment as assistant, till she has first attended at least twenty-six sessions of the Normal Class.

The labors of the faithful teacher are sufficiently exhausting, without the additional effort of preparing several lessons to be recited at the close of every week, and the time required to attend the weekly Normal Class during a series of terms or years, is greatly needed for healthful relaxation and exercise. While, therefore, I take pleasure in reporting the increased attention that is given to monthly and semi-monthly Institutes of Teachers, I must be allowed to express the opinion, that weekly Normal Classes of Teachers can never meet with general favor among judicious friends of education.

3. Voluntary associations of teachers for purposes of professional improvement, have generally failed to accomplish the object sought. The testimony on this point is abundant and unequivocal. There are few cities in which \*these associations secure the constant attendance of even half the number of teachers connected with the schools; and most of the voluntary associations that have maintained a permanent existence, have been composed chiefly of Masters and teachers of the higher grades, and have failed to reach and benefit the great body of Grammar and Primary assistants.

\*The following classified list embraces most of the cities which belong to either of the divisions described above:

*Attendance at Institutes required once a month.*—Buffalo, N. Y.; Cincinnati, virtually—and Columbus, O.; Detroit, Mich.; Louisville, Ky.; Evansville, Ind.; Chicago, Springfield; Warsaw, and Alton, Ill.; St. Louis, Mo.; St. Paul, Minn.

*Attendance required once in two weeks.*—Brattleboro', Vt.; Norwich, Conn.; Rochester and Syracuse, N. Y.; Mansfield, Norwalk, Toledo, and Zanesville, O.; Grand Rapids, Ann Arbor, Kalamazoo, and Adrian, Mich.; Indianapolis and New Albany, Ind.; Peoria, Quincy, Galena, and Galesburg, Ill.; Kenosha, Wis.; Dubuque, Iowa.

*Attendance required once a week.*—Oswego, two terms in a year, Elmira, two terms in a year, and Schenectady, N. Y.; Sandusky, O.; Fort Wayne, Ind.; Newport, Ky.; Rock Island, Ill.; Davenport, Iowa; Racine, Madison, Janesville, and Sheboygan, Wis.

*No rule requiring attendance as often as once a month.*—Portland, Bangor, Brunswick, Bath, Me.; Manchester, Concord, Nashua, Portsmouth, N. H.; Burlington, Vt.; Boston, Charlestown, Lowell, Cambridge, Lawrence, Roxbury, Salem, Newburyport, New Bedford, Gloucester, Worcester, Fall River, Mass.; Hartford, New Haven, New London, Conn.; Providence, Bristol, Newport, R. I.; New York, Brooklyn, Troy, Albany, Utica, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Penn.; Baltimore, Md.; Wilmington, Del.; Cleveland and Dayton, O.; Dixon, Ill.; Des Moines, Iowa City, Cedar Rapids, Muscatine, Iowa; Minneapolis, Minn.

Returns have been received from about twenty cities not embraced in the foregoing classes. Some of these are included in the list of cities requiring Saturday Normal Classes, some are governed by the special law of Pennsylvania, and in others the teachers are called together at irregular intervals.

† Schools of this description have been established in New York, Brooklyn, and Buffalo, N. Y.; Concord, N. H.; Newark and Patterson, N. J.; Bloomington, Ill.; Baltimore, Cincinnati, St. Louis, San Francisco, and a few other cities. In St. Louis, New York, Brooklyn, and Concord, these schools have, for various reasons, been either suspended temporarily, or entirely abandoned.



4. The numerous letters received from different portions of the country, afford the fullest evidence of a growing interest in the professional improvement of teachers; and in several instances, the more active and progressive teachers have themselves requested the Directors to establish Institutes, which all the teachers should be required to attend.

In cities where Teachers' Institutes are established by order of the School Directors, the best teachers are generally the most ready to attend, and the most interested in the exercises; while those who really need them most are usually the first to complain that they are burdensome, uninteresting, and profitless.

The greatest obstacle to the success of Teachers' Institutes, is found in the feeling which still prevails to a considerable extent, that they encroach upon the time that properly belongs to the teachers. No effort should be spared to remove this impression, and secure the cheerful attendance of the teachers upon the meetings, and their hearty interest in them. The first and most important measure to be adopted, is to have a full and definite understanding, that all engagements with teachers include attendance upon the Institutes and an active participation in their exercises; and that absence from one of these meetings is quite as important a neglect of duty as absence from school during any of the regular sessions. Another means of securing this object would be the establishment of uniformity in the practice of different cities. If the custom of devoting a certain number of hours in a month to exercises for mutual improvement was universal, no teacher would think of objecting to it. We are not to expect that this uniformity will be secured at once, but the practice of exchanging school reports, which is every year increasing, is already exerting a manifest influence in this direction. If each member of the Board, in this and other cities, would spend but two or three hours in the year at these meetings, it would do very much to encourage the teachers, and stimulate them to put forth their best efforts to render the exercises interesting and profitable.

Practical drill exercises, on some subject connected with the daily routine of the school-room, and in which all the teachers are expected to take a part, should form a part of the programme of every Teachers' Institute. It is those who sit as passive listeners, or in passive listlessness, that are not interested and not benefited.

#### *Teachers' Meetings in School Hours.*

In Boston\* and Chicago, and a few other cities, the Superintendents are authorized to call occasional meetings of certain classes of teachers in school hours, for the purpose of discussing methods of instruction and discipline. In most cases, the teachers that are called together for this purpose, dismiss their divisions for the half day; but a single division or class is sometimes retained for purposes of experimental instruction.

In some cities, all the teachers of each school are called together by the Principal once a week, for the purpose of conferring together respecting the general interests of the school.

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\* The following is the rule of the Boston School Committee:

"The Superintendent shall advise the teachers on the best methods of instruction and discipline, and, to illustrate these methods in respect to Primary Schools, he shall hold occasional meetings of the teachers of the schools, and have authority to dismiss the Primary Schools at such time as he shall deem advisable, not exceeding one-half day in each quarter. He has authority, also, to dismiss the Grammar Schools, not exceeding one-half day in each half year, for the purpose of holding meetings, of the teachers of these schools."

The teachers of our High School have a regular weekly meeting, which has been sustained from the organization of the school to the present time.

I have an abiding conviction that these meetings may be made to exert a highly beneficial influence; and I would respectfully recommend that a rule be adopted requiring each of the Principals to dismiss his school an hour before usual time of closing, one day in a week, for the purpose of holding a meeting of the teachers, to discuss methods of instruction and discipline, and confer together respecting the general interests of the school.

As a specimen of the manner in which the progress of teachers in knowledge and spirit was kept up in Prussia, under the lead of School-Counselor Bernhardt, we append an extract from his journal of the last week's proceedings of a Teacher's Conferences.

#### IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL-TEACHERS.

At the commencement of the late school efforts in Prussia, for the benefit of teachers already in the profession who had not possessed the advantages of a regular training, it was the custom for them to assemble during the weeks of vacation in their schools, and, under the care of a competent teacher, go through a regular course of lessons for their improvement. Of the entire course a careful and minute journal was kept and transmitted to the government. The following is from the journal of a four weeks' course of this kind, which was held at Regenwald in 1821, under the charge of School-Counselor Bernhardt. The King gave his special approbation of this journal, and caused a large number of copies to be printed and circulated throughout the kingdom. The Minister of Public Instruction expresses himself respecting it in the following terms:—

"The view presented and acted upon by School-Counselor Bernhardt, that the important point is not the quantity and variety of knowledge communicated, but its solidity and accuracy; and that the foundation of all true culture consists in the education to piety, the fear of God, and Christian humility; and, accordingly, that those dispositions, before all things else, must be awakened and confirmed in teachers, that thereby they may exercise love, long-suffering, and cheerfulness, in their difficult and laborious calling—these principles are the only correct ones, according to which the education of teachers every where, and in all cases, can and ought to be conducted, notwithstanding the regard which must be had to the peculiar circumstances and the intellectual condition of particular provinces and communities. The Ministry hereby enjoin it anew upon the Regency, not only to make these principles their guide in their own labors in the common schools and Teachers' Seminaries, but also to commend and urge them in the most emphatic manner on all teachers and pupils in their jurisdiction. That this will be faithfully done, the Ministry expect with so much the more confidence, because in this way alone can the supreme will of his Majesty the King, repeatedly and earnestly expressed, be fulfilled. Of the manner in which the Regency execute this order, the Ministry expect a Report, and only remark further, that as many copies of the journal as may be needed will be supplied."

The strongly religious character of the instructions in the following journal will be noticed; but will any *Christian* find fault with this characteristic, or with the King and Ministry for commending it!

The journal gives an account of the employment of every hour in the day, from half past six in the morning to a quarter before nine in the evening. Instead of making extracts from different parts of it, I here present the entire journal for the last week of the course, that the reader may have the better opportunity of forming his own judgment on the real merits of the system.

#### FOURTH WEEK.

*Monday, Oct. 22.—A. M. 6½–7. Meditation.* Teachers and parents, forget not that your children are men, and that, as such, they have the ability to become reasonable. God will have all men to come to the knowledge of the truth. As men, our children have the dignity of men, and a right to life, cultivation, honor, and truth. This is a holy, inalienable right, that is, no man can divest himself of

it without ceasing to be a man. 7-8½. Bible instruction. Reading the Bible and verbal analysis of what is read. Jesus in the wilderness. 9-12. Writing. Exercise in small letters. P. M. 2-5. Writing as before. 5½-7. Singing. 8-8½. Meditation. Our schools should be Christian schools for Christian children, and Jesus Christ should be daily the chief teacher. One thing is needful. Jesus Christ, the same yesterday, to-day, and forever. The great end of our schools, therefore, is the instruction of children in Christianity; or the knowledge of heavenly truths in hope of eternal life; and to answer the question, What must I do to be saved? Our children, as they grow up, must be able to say, from the conviction of their hearts, We know and are sure that thou art the Christ, the Son of the living God. Beloved teachers, teach no Christianity without Christ, and know that there cannot be a living faith without knowledge and love.

*Tuesday, Oct. 23.*—A. M. 6-7. Meditation. Christian schools are the gardens of God's Spirit, and the plantations of humanity, and, therefore, holy places. How dreadful is this place! This is none other than the house of God. Teachers, venerate your schools—regard the sacred as sacred. 7-8½. Bible instruction. Reading of the Bible and verbal analysis of what is read. Luke xv. 1-10. 8½-9. Catechism. Repeating the second article with proper emphasis, and the necessary explanation of terms. 10-12. Writing. Exercise in German capitals, with the writing of syllables and words. P. M. 1-4. General repetition of the instructions for school-teachers given during the month. 4-5. Brief instruction respecting school discipline and school laws. 5-7. Singing. 8-8½. Meditation. Teachers, you should make your school a house of prayer, not a den of murderers. Thou shalt not kill—that is, thou shalt do no injury to the souls of thy children. This you will do if you are an ungodly teacher, if you neglect your duty, if you keep no order or discipline in your school, if you instruct the children badly, or not at all, and set before them an injurious example. The children will be injured also by hurrying through the school-prayers, the texts, and catechism, and by all thoughtless reading and committing to memory. May God help you!

*Wednesday, Oct. 24.*—6-6½. Meditation. Dear teachers, you labor for the good of mankind and the kingdom of God; be, therefore, God's instruments and co-workers. Thy kingdom come. In all things approving ourselves as the ministers of God. 6½-8½. Bible instruction as before, John iv. 1-15. 8½-9. Catechism. The correct and emphatic reading and repeating of the first section, with brief explanation of terms. 10-12. Instruction in school discipline and school laws. P. M. 1-3. Instruction in the cultivation of fruit-trees. For instruction in this branch of economy, the school is arranged in six divisions, each under the care of a teacher acquainted with the business, with whom they go into an orchard, and under his inspection perform all the necessary work. General principles and directions are written in a book, of which each student has a copy. More cooling is the shade, and more sweet the fruit, of the tree which thine own hands have planted and cherished. 3-5. Instruction in school discipline and school laws. 5½-¾. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. The Christian school-teacher is also a good husband and father. Blameless, the husband of one wife, vigilant, sober, of good behavior, apt to teach, not given to wine, no striker, not greedy of filthy lucre, patient, not a brawler, not covetous, one that ruleth well his own house, having his children in subjection, with all gravity. He that readeth, let him understand.

*Thursday, Oct. 25.*—A. M. 6-6½. Meditation. Dear teachers, do all in your power to live in harmony and peace with your districts, that you may be a helper of the parents in the bringing up of their children. Endeavor to maintain the unity of the Spirit in the bond of peace. As much as in you lies, live peaceably with all men. 6½-9. Bible instruction as before, Luke vii. 11-17. Reading by sentences, by words, by syllables, by letters. Reading according to the sense, with questions as to the meaning. Understandest thou what thou readest? 10-11. Instructions as to prayer in schools. Forms of prayer suitable for teachers and children are copied and committed to memory. Lord, teach us to pray. 11-12. Writing. Exercise in capitals and writing words. P. M. 2-3. Instruction respecting prayer in the family and in the school. Forms of prayer for morning and evening, and at the table, are copied, with instructions that school children should commit them to memory, that they may aid their parents to an edifying performance of the duty of family worship; that, as the school

this helps the family, so the family also may help the school. Use not vain repetitions. 3-5. Bible instruction. General views of the contents of the Bible, and how the teacher may communicate, analyze, and explain them to his children, yearly, at the commencement of the winter and summer terms. 5½-7. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. Teachers, acquire the confidence and love of your districts, but never forsake the direct path of duty. Fear God, do right, and be afraid of no man. The world, with its lusts, passeth away, but he that doeth the will of God shall abide forever.

*Friday, Oct. 26.*—Meditation. Teachers, hearken to the preacher, and labor into his hands; for he is placed over the Church of God, who will have the school be an aid to the Church. Remember them that labor among you, and are over you in the Lord, and esteem them highly in love for their works' sake. Neither is he that planteth any thing, nor he that watereth any thing, but God who giveth the increase. 7-9. Bible instruction. Summary of the contents of the Bible, to be committed to memory by children from ten to fifteen years of age. 10-12. Bible instruction. Brief statement of the contents of the historical books of the New Testament. P. M. 1-5. Bible instruction. Contents of the doctrinal and prophetic books of the New Testament. Selection of the passages of the New Testament proper to be read in a country school. A guide for teachers to the use of the Bible in schools. 5-7. Singing. 8-9. Meditation. Honor and love, as a good teacher, thy King and thy father-land; and awake the same feelings and sentiments in the hearts of thy children. Fear God, honor the King, seek the good of the country in which you dwell, for when it goes well with it, it goes well with thee.

*Saturday, Oct. 27.*—6-6½. Meditation. By the life in the family, the school, and the church, our heavenly Father would educate us and our children for our earthly and heavenly home; therefore parents, teachers, and preachers, should labor hand in hand. One soweth and another reapeth. I have laid the foundation, another buildeth thereon; and let every man take heed how he buildeth thereon. Means of education: 1. In the family—the parents, domestic life, habits; 2. In the school—the teacher, the instruction, the discipline; 3. In the church—the preaching, the word, the sacraments. 6½-9½. Bible instruction. Rules which the teacher should observe in reading the Bible. In analyzing it. In respect to the contents of the Old Testament books, and selections from them for reading, written instructions are given and copied, on account of the shortness of the time which is here given to this topic. 10-12. Bible instruction. General repetition. P. M. 1-4. Bible instruction. General repetition. 4-5. Reading. Knowledge of the German language, with written exercises. 7-10½. Review of the course of instruction and the journal. 10½-12. Meditation. The prayer of Jesus (John xvii.), with particular reference to our approaching separation.

*Sunday, Oct. 28.*—6½-9. Morning prayer. Catechism. Close of the term. (In the open air on a hill at sunset) singing and prayer. Address by the head teacher. Subject. What our teacher would say to us when we separate from him. 1. What you have learned apply well, and follow it faithfully. "If ye know these things, happy are ye if ye do them." 2. Learn to see more and more clearly that you know but little. We know in part. 3. Be continually learning, and never get weary. The man has never lived who has learned all that he might. 4. Be yourself what you would have your children become. Become as little children. 5. Let God's grace be your highest good, and let it strengthen you in the difficulties which you must encounter. My grace is sufficient for thee—my strength is perfect in thy weakness. 6. Keep constantly in mind the Lord Jesus Christ. He has left us an example that we should follow his steps. Hymn—Lord Jesus Christ, hearken thou to us. Prayer. Benediction.

Review of the hours spent in different studies during the four weeks. Arithmetic, sixty-seven; writing, fifty-six; Bible, twenty-five; meditation, thirty-six; other subjects, twenty-six; singing, twenty-eight. Total, two hundred and thirty-eight. From nine to ten, in the morning, was generally spent in walking together, and one hour in the afternoon was sometimes spent in the same manner.

Familiar lectures were given on the following topics: 1. Directions to teachers as to the knowledge and right use of the Bible in schools. 2. Directions to teachers respecting instruction in writing. 3. Directions for exercises in mental arithmetic. 4. Instructions respecting school discipline and school laws. 5. A col-

lection of prayers for the school and family, with directions to teachers. 6. The German parts of speech, and how they may be best taught in a country school. 7. The day-book.

Printed books were the following: 1. Dinter's Arithmetic. 2. Dinter on Guarding against Fires. 3. Brief Biography of Luther. 4. On the Cultivation of Fruit-Trees. 5. German Grammar. 6. Baumgarten's Letter-Writer for Country Schools. 7. Luther's Catechism.

That which can be learned and practiced in the short space of a few weeks, is only a little—a very little. But it is not of so much importance that we have more knowledge than others; but most depends on this, that I have the right disposition; and that I thoroughly understand and faithfully follow out the little which I do know.

God help me, that I may give all which I have to my school; and that I, with my dear children, may, above all things, strive after that which is from above. Father in heaven, grant us strength and love for this.

## VII. HISTORY

OF

### NORMAL SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

THE earliest movement towards the professional training of teachers was made in France by the Abbe de Lasalle, while canon of the Cathedral at Rheims, in 1681, and perfected, in his training school for his Institute of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, in 1684.

In 1794, by an ordinance of the National Convention a normal school was established at Paris to furnish professors for colleges and the higher seminaries. The institution was projected on a scale beyond the preparation which its earliest pupils could bring, and beyond the wants to be supplied. The instruction was mainly by lectures, which were delivered by Lagrange, Laplace, Sicard, Laharpe, and other distinguished teachers and men of science. The experiment was abandoned in 1795, and not resumed till 1808, when Napoleon re-established the school in the ordinance creating the "Imperial University of France." It has since been maintained for the purpose of training a class of pupils for professorships in the colleges and secondary schools.

In 1810 the first seminary designed for teachers of elementary schools, was established at Strasbourg, through the liberality of Count de Lezai Marnesia, and the co-operation of the Rector of the Academy, and the prefect of the department of the Lower Rhine. It opened in 1811 as a "Normal class of primary school teachers." No pupil was admitted who was under sixteen years of age, or over thirty, or who was not acquainted with the studies pursued in elementary schools. The course embraced four years, and included as wide and thorough range of studies as is now required in the best Normal Schools of France. The number of pupils was limited to sixty, and those who enjoyed the benefit of a bourse, or scholarship, came under obligation to teach at least ten years in the schools of the department. Those scholarships were founded partly by individual liberality, and partly by the department, and by the communes, which sent candidates to the school. Under the organization established in 1810, with such modifications as experience suggested, this school has continued to exert a powerful influence on the cause of popular education through that section of France, and it now ranks not only as the oldest, but one of the best in Europe. The department of Upper Rhine, witnessing the results of this experiment in the neighboring communes, appropriated six thousand francs to found scholarships, for the benefit of a certain number of candidates in the seminary at Strasbourg. According to a Report of M. Guizot to the King, in 1833, it appears that the state of primary education in the two departments constituting the Acad-



emy of Strasbourg, was far in advance of any other section of France. Good schools were more numerous; fewer communes were destitute of schools; and the slow and defective method of individual instruction had given place to more lively and simultaneous methods of class instruction. "In all respects the superiority of the popular schools is striking, and the conviction of the people is as general that this superiority is mainly due to the existence of this Normal School."

The establishment of two Normal Schools for the departments of Moselle and Meuse, in 1820, was followed by the same results,—the establishment of schools in communes before destitute, and the improvement of schools already in operation, by the introduction of better methods. In 1828 a new impulse was given to educational improvement by public-spirited individuals and teachers' associations in Paris, and other parts of France, which led to the establishment of a fourth Normal School in the department of Vosges, and a fifth in that of Meuth. About the same time a Normal course of instruction was opened in the college of Charleville, for the department of Ardennes, and the foundations of superior Normal Schools were laid at Dijon, Orleans, and Bourges, as well as a Training School for the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine at Rouen. At the close of 1829, there were thirteen Normal Schools in operation. The movement already commenced, received a new impulse in the right direction by the Revolution of 1830, which in this respect was as beneficent as the Revolution of 1791 was disastrous. In the three years immediately following the change of dynasty in 1830, thirty-four new Normal Schools were established in different sections of France, and wherever they were established they contributed to the opening of primary schools in communes before destitute, and of diffusing a knowledge of better methods among teachers who did not resort to these seminaries. But the most auspicious event was the publication of M. Cousin's "*Report on the condition of Public Instruction in several of the States of Germany, and especially in Prussia*," in 1832. A considerable portion of this report was devoted to an account of the best Normal Schools of Prussia, and to the most emphatic recommendation of the same policy in France. The following valuable suggestions were made on this subject, most of which were subsequently embodied in the Law of Primary Instruction, and the Regulations of the Minister relating to Normal Schools.

"I have already remarked, that as every commune must have its primary school, so every department must have its primary Normal School. If the same law which shall render the former imperative on the communes, should render the latter equally imperative on the departments, we should have made a great advance. If the law does not go so far as that, you must at all events come at the same results by administrative measures; you must require every council-general of a department, through the medium of the prefect, to vote funds for the establishment of a primary Normal School, under condition of binding yourself to contribute a greater or less portion of the total expenditure, and to take upon

yourself, 1. the salary of the director, whom you would nominate; 2. the books, maps, and instruments necessary for the use of the students. It must be laid down as a principle, that every department must have its Normal School; but that school should be proportioned to the extent and the wealth of the department, and it may, with equal propriety, be small in one and large in another. I take the liberty of referring to a very simple and very economical plan on which a primary Normal School may at first be organized.

Choose the best-conducted primary school in the department, that which is in the hands of the master of the greatest ability and trustworthiness. Annex to this school a class called Normal, in which this same master shall teach his art to a certain number of young men of the department, who are willing to come to it to form themselves for school-masters. None should be admitted till after an examination, made by a commission appointed by you. This commission must send you the results of its labors; and it would be well that the admission of the students to the primary Normal School should be signed by you, as is the case in the admission of students to the great Normal School for the instruction of the second degree. This small Normal School ought never to be placed in a very large town, the influence of which would be adverse to that spirit of poverty, humility and peace, so necessary to the students. There is no objection to their being day-pupils, provided they are responsible for their conduct out of the house. Nor is it necessary that all should receive exhibitions, or purses, especially whole purses. In all small towns there are families in which a young man may be boarded and lodged for about 300 francs a year, (\$60;) so that 3000 francs, (\$600,) prudently divided into whole, half, and quarter purses, would easily defray the cost of ten or fifteen students. Give the master the title of Director of the Normal School, which would be a real gain to him, inasmuch as it would increase his consideration; and for the additional labor you impose upon him, give him a salary of 700 or 800 francs. Add a yearly allowance of 400 or 500 francs for books, maps, and other things required in teaching; and thus, for 5000 francs, (\$1000,) at the utmost, you have a small Normal School, which will be extremely useful to the department. The pupils should be permitted to leave it if they choose, in a year, provided they be able to go through the examination at quitting, on which depends their obtaining the brevet of primary teacher. Yes, it rests with you, by means of a circular to this effect, addressed to all the prefects of the kingdom, to have in a few months, eighty-four small primary Normal Schools in France. The plan which I propose does not commit you to any future measures, yet it at once covers France with Normal Schools which will supply our first wants. It is for time, zeal, intelligence, and perseverance to do the rest. There must always necessarily be a great difference among the Normal Schools of our eighty-four departments; but the best way is, to go on gradually improving, in proportion as experience shows you what is required. Even with this wise tardiness, three or four years will suffice to improve all these small Normal Schools, and to raise a great number to the rank of complete great Normal Schools.

The difference between a great and a small Normal School consists in this: a small Normal School is only an appendage to a primary school, whilst a great Normal School is an establishment subsisting by and for itself, to which a primary school (and if possible that should comprise both an elementary and a middle school) is annexed.

This difference gives the measure of all other differences. In the small Normal School there are only day-pupils, or at most a few boarders. In the great, the majority may be boarders. In the one, the course may be terminated in a year; in the other, it should extend through two years, as at Bruhl; and even, in time, according to the resources of the

departments and the progress of public education, it might embrace three years, as in most of the great Normal Schools of Prussia,—Potadam, for example. The departments must be the judges of their resources and of their wants. A department which wants twenty schoolmasters a year, and which has a certain number of middle or burgher-schools, as well as many elementary schools, can very well receive twenty pupils a year; which, supposing the course to occupy two or three years, amounts to forty or sixty pupils at a time in the school. Then there must be accommodation for boarding them, a large building, a greater number of masters, more exhibitions, (*bourses*,) more expense of every sort.

In the hope that the few great primary Normal Schools we already possess will soon be succeeded by others, I beg your attention to the following maxims, deduced from general experience, and from all the data I have accumulated here.

I. To begin by giving instructions rather than rules; to confine yourself in these instructions to the establishing of a few essential points, and to leave the rest to the departmental committee. To discuss and decide this small number of points in the royal council; not to multiply them, but inflexibly to enforce their execution. The fewer they are, the more easy will this execution be, and the more susceptible will they be of application to all the Normal Schools of France; so that there would be a common groundwork for all; a unity, which, passing from the Normal Schools into the whole body of popular education, would have a beneficial influence in strengthening the national unity. At the same time, this unity would not be prejudicial to local diversities; for the departmental committee would be desired to apply your general instructions according to the peculiar manners or usages of the department. From the combination of the uniformity of these instructions, with the diversity of arrangements which the prudence and intelligence of the committee, and the experience of each year, will recommend, a set of regulations for each Normal School will gradually arise, more or less definitive, and therefore fit to be made public. The plan of study of the great Normal School at Paris, for the supply of the royal and communal colleges, is the fruit of fifteen years' experience. This school, which was founded in 1810, had no written laws till 1815. We made important modifications in those laws at the Revolution of 1830, and it was not till then that we ventured to print them, as the result, nearly definitive, or at least likely to endure for some time, of all the experiments successively tried. Let us imitate this caution, and begin with a simple set of instructions from the minister. Rules for the studies and the discipline will gradually arise. Every year will modify them. The important thing is, to exact an accurate account of the proceedings and results of the year, drawn up by the director, and transmitted to you, together with all the necessary documents, by the departmental committee and the prefect, who will subjoin their own opinion. Then, and then only, you will interpose your authority, with that of the royal council, which will revise this report every year at the vacation, and pronounce on the improvements to be introduced.

II. To attach the greatest possible importance to the choice of a director. It is a principle generally established in Prussia, that the goodness of a Normal School is in exact proportion to the goodness of the director; just as the primary school is what its master is. What constitutes a Normal School is not a fine building; on the contrary, it is not amiss that it should not be over commodious or splendid. It is not even the excellence of the regulations, which, without a faithful and intelligent execution of them, are only a useless bit of paper. A Normal School is what its director is. He is the life and soul of it. If he is a man of ability, he will turn the poorest and humblest elements to account; if he is incapable, the best and most prolific will remain sterile in his hands. Let us by no means

make our directors mere house-stewards. A director ought to be at the head of the most important branches of instruction, and to set an example to all the other masters. He must have long fulfilled the duties of a master; first, in different classes of a Normal course of education, so that he may have a general knowledge of the whole system; secondly, in several Normal Schools, so that he may have experience of difficulties of various kinds; lastly, he must not be placed at the head of a Normal School or the highest class, till he has been director of several of an inferior class, so as to graduate promotion according to merit, and thus keep up an honorable emulation.

III. An excellent practice in Germany is, to place the candidates, immediately on their leaving the Normal School, as assistant masters in schools which admit of two. The young men thus go through at least a year of apprenticeship,—a very useful novitiate: they gain age and experience, and their final appointment depends on their conduct as assistant masters. I regard every gradation as extremely useful, and I think a little graduated scale of powers and duties might be advantageously introduced into primary instruction.

1st. Pupil of a Normal School admitted after competition, holding a more or less high rank in the examination list at the end of each year, and quitting the school with such or such a number. 2d. Same pupil promoted to the situation of assistant master. 3d. Schoolmaster successively in different schools rising in salary and in importance. 4th. After distinguished services, master in a primary Normal School. 5th. Lastly, director of a school of that class, with the prospect of gradually rising to be director of a numerous and wealthy Normal School, which would be a post equal to that of professor of a royal college. The human soul lives in the future. It is ambitious, because it is infinite. Let us then open to it a progressive career, even in the humblest occupations.

IV. We can not be too deeply impressed with this truth,—that paid instruction is better than gratuitous instruction. The entire sum paid for board at a Normal School must be extremely moderate, for the young men of the poorest classes to be able to pay it. We must give only quarter or half exhibitions, (*bourses*,) reserving two or three whole ones for the two or three young men, out of the fifteen admitted annually, who stand first on the list; and even this should not be continued to them the second year, unless their conduct had been irreproachable and their application unremitting.

On the same principle as that laid down above, the elementary school annexed to the Normal School ought not to be entirely gratuitous; it ought to have no other masters than the forwardest pupils of the Normal School, acting under the direction of their masters. The profits of the elementary school for practice would go to diminish the total cost of the Normal School. As for the middle school for practice, it would be contrary to the principle of all middle schools to have it gratuitous.

V. Divide the studies of all Normal Schools into two parts: during the first, the pupils should be considered simply as students, whose acquirements are to be confirmed, extended, and methodized: during the second, as masters, who are to be theoretically and practically taught the art of teaching. If the Normal course only lasts a year, this part of it ought to occupy at least six months; if it lasts two years, it ought to occupy a year; if three years, it would still occupy only a year. The students in this last year would give lessons in the elementary and middle schools annexed to the Normal School.

VI. The examination at quitting ought to be more rigid than that at entering the school. The important thing is to have young men of good capacity, even if they know little; for they will learn rapidly; while some, who might not be deficient in a certain quantity of acquired know-

ledge, but were dull or wrong-headed, could never be made good schoolmasters. No latitude whatever must be left to the Commission of Examination at departure. Here, intelligence must show itself in positive attainments, since opportunity to acquire them has been given. Nothing but negligence can have stood in their way, and that negligence would be the greatest of all faults. This latter examination, therefore, must be directed to ascertain the acquired, and not the natural fitness. But in the examination on entering, I wish that the Commission should more particularly inquire into the talents and natural bent, and, above all, into the moral character and disposition. A little discretionary power ought to be confided to it. This applies more especially to those Normal Schools, the course of which lasts two or three years. Three years of study will not give intelligence; but they will give all the necessary attainments in abundance.

VII. It is my earnest desire, that conferences\* should be formed among the schoolmasters of each canton. I wish it, but have but little hope of it, at least at first. Such conferences suppose both too great a love for their profession, and too great a familiarity with the spirit of association. A thing much more easy to accomplish is, that during the vacations of the primary schools, a certain number of masters should repair to the Normal School of the department to perfect themselves in this or that particular branch, and to receive lessons appropriate to their wants, as is the case in Prussia. This time would be very usefully, and even very agreeably employed; for the young masters would be brought into contact with their old instructors and companions, and would have an opportunity of renewing and cementing old friendships. Here would be an interesting prospect for them every year. For such an object, we must not grudge a little expense for their journey and their residence. I should therefore wish that the vacations of the primary schools, which must be regulated by certain agricultural labors, should always precede those of the primary Normal Schools, in order that the masters of the former might be able to take advantage of the lessons in the latter, and might be present at the parting examinations of the third year, which would be an excellent exercise for the young acting masters.

I am convinced of the utility of having an inspector of primary schools for each department, who would spend the greater part of the year in going from school to school, in stirring up the zeal of the masters, in giving a right direction to that of the communal committees, and in keeping up a general and very beneficial harmony among the *maires* and the *cures*. It is unnecessary for me to say, that this inspector ought always to be some old master of a Normal School, selected for his talents, and still more for his tried character. But if this institution, which is universal in Germany, were not popular among us, nearly the same results might be obtained by authorizing the director, or in default of him, some masters of the Normal School, to visit a certain number of the schools of the department every year, during the vacation of their own school, and to do what would be done by the inspector above named. They would find great facilities from their old habits of intercourse and friendship with most of the masters, over whom they would exercise almost a paternal influence. On the other hand, they would gain by these visits, and would acquire a continually increasing experience, which would turn to the advantage of the Normal Schools. You have seen that in Prussia, besides the visits of the circle-inspectors, the directors of Normal Schools make visitations of this kind, for which they receive some very slender remuneration; for these little journeys are sources of pleasure to them, as well as of utility to the public.

\* See notes to Professor Stowe's Essay, page 239.

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labor which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In the Normal Schools where German is still the language of the people, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our Normal Schools. Leaving to the curé, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the Normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what should constitute a true primary Normal School, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It can not be denied that it is. I ask then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfil their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honor, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the



more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that there must be a course of special religious instruction in our Normal Schools. Religion is, in my eyes, the best, perhaps the only, basis of popular education. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen good schools where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary instruction flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany; in all it is profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The little popular instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In France, with few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Freres de la Doctrine Chretienne*, (Brothers of the Christian Doctrine.) These are facts which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain persons. Let them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patience, what resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so toilsome an employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those benevolent nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to wealth? There are things in human society which can neither be conceived nor accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of the mass, without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an object of speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schools in the south, in the west, in Brittany, in the mountains of Auvergne, and, without going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris itself, will never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a remunerating occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers inspired with the ardent philanthropy of Saint Vincent de Paule, without his religious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere vocation; but the question is not to have here and there a master. We have more than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call religion to the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviation of the pecuniary burdens of the nation. Either you must lavish the treasures of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to give high salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen called schoolmasters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christian charity, and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, and modest dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely taught, can alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of all this, the more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with the directors of Normal Schools and councilors of the ministry, the more I am strengthened in the conviction that we must make any efforts or any sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on the subject of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and very carefully-taught branch of instruction in our primary Normal Schools.

I am not ignorant that this advice will grate on the ears of many persons, and that I shall be thought extremely devout at Paris. Yet it is not from Rome, but from Berlin, that I address you. The man who holds this language to you is a philosopher, formerly disliked, and even persecuted, by the priesthood; but this philosopher has a mind too little affected by the recollection of his own insults, and is too well acquainted with human nature and with history, not to regard religion as an indestructible power: genuine Christianity, as a means of civilization for the people, and a necessary support for those on whom society imposes irksome and humble duties, without the slightest prospect of fortune, without the least gratification of self-love.

I am now arrived at the termination of this long report. May it be of use to you in the important work which now engages your attention! My illustrious colleague, M. Cuvier, has already exhibited to France the organization of primary instruction in Holland. The experience of Germany, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true

greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.

I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others. With the promptitude and justness of the French understanding, and the indestructible unity of our national character, we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves. Placed in the center of Europe, possessing every variety of climate, bordering on all civilized nations, and holding up perpetual intercourse with them, France is essentially cosmopolitan; and indeed this is the main source of her great influence. Besides, civilized Europe now forms but one great family. We constantly imitate England in all that concerns outward life, the mechanical arts, and physical refinements; why, then, should we blush to borrow something from kind, honest, pious, learned Germany, in what regards inward life and the nurture of the soul?

For my own part, I avow my high esteem and peculiar affection for the German people; and I am happy that my mission proved to them that the revolution of July,—that revolution, as necessary and as just as the legitimate right of self-defense; that revolution, sprung from the unanimous resistance of a great people to a capricious aggression, an open violation, not of hypothetical rights, but of liberties secured by law,—is not, as its enemies pretend, a return to the impiety, the licentiousness and the corruption of a fatal period; but, on the contrary, the signal for a general improvement in opinion and in morals; since one of the first acts of the new government has been the holy enterprise of the amelioration of public education, of which the instruction of the people is the basis."

With this preparation,—a good beginning already made in several departments, and the long and successful experience of Prussia and other German states before him,—a regulation was framed by M. Guizot, and sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction, by which, in connection with the law of 1833, a system of Normal Schools has been established and is fast regenerating the elementary instruction in France. The following is an outline of the system:

Each department is obliged, either alone or in conjunction with other neighboring departments, to support one Normal School for the education of its schoolmasters.

The expense of this establishment for building, apparatus, and instruction, is borne mainly by the department, whilst the direction of the education given in it is vested in the Minister of Public Instruction, who is responsible to the Chambers, of both of which he is an *ex officio* member, for the right exercise of his power.

The immediate management of Normal Schools and of the model schools annexed is committed to a Director who is appointed by the Minister, on the presentation of the prefect of the department, and the rector of the academy. These directors are paid wholly or partially from the public funds set apart by the department for public instruction. If the department refuses or neglects to provide sufficient funds, the government enforces the collection of the necessary tax; if the department is overburdened, the government contributes its aid.

To meet the expense of board, the pupils are assisted by gratuities, or bursaries, which the communes, departments, the university, the state, and even individuals, have established for this purpose. These *bourses* are usually granted in halves or quarters, the rest of the expense being

borne by the pupils. Of 1444 pupil-teachers in 1834, 1308 were bursars of the departments, 118 of the communes, 245 of the state, and 273 were maintained at their own expense.

Every candidate for admission to these institutions, and to the enjoyment of a *bourse*, or any part of one, must bind himself to follow the profession of a parish schoolmaster for ten years at least after quitting the institution; and to reimburse it for the whole expense of his maintenance, if he fail to fulfill his decennial engagement. He must have completed his sixteenth year; and besides the ordinary elementary acquirements, must produce evidence both of good previous character, and of general intelligence and aptitude to learn. Most of the bursaries are adjudged upon a comparative trial among competitors, who are likely to become every year more numerous: and the examination for admission is so well arranged and conducted, that it tends to raise higher and higher the standard of previous acquirement.

The course of instruction and training to which the youth is thus introduced, occupies two years of eleven months each, *i. e.* from the first of October to the first of the ensuing September, and embraces the following objects:—

1st. Moral and religious instruction. The latter, in as far as it is distinct from the former, is given by the clergyman of the particular faith which the pupil happens to profess.

2d. Reading, with the grammar of their own language.

3d. Arithmetic, including an intimate and practical acquaintance with the legal system of weights and measures. This knowledge is made to hold so prominent a part in the program of instruction, as affording the best means of introducing that admirable system into the habits of the French people, among whom, from ignorance and prejudice, it is still far from being generally adopted.

4th. Linear drawing, and construction of diagrams, land-measuring, and other applications of practical geometry.

5th. Elements of physical science, with a special view to the purposes of ordinary life.

6th. Music, taught by the eye as well as by the ear.

7th. Gymnastics.

8th. The elements of general geography and history, and the particular geography and history of France.

9th. The pupils are instructed, and, wherever the locality admits, exercised also, in the rearing of esculent vegetables, and in the pruning and grafting of trees.

10th. They are accustomed to the drawing out of the simpler legal forms and civil deeds.

A library for the use of the pupils is fitted up within the premises; and a sum is set apart every year for the purchase of such works as the Council of Public Instruction may judge likely to be useful to the young schoolmasters.

The course of study is, for the present, limited to two years, instead of three, which is the term ultimately contemplated as the most desirable. During the second of those years, instruction in the principles of the art of teaching is kept constantly in view; and for the last six months, in particular, the pupils are trained to the practical application of the most approved methods, by being employed as assistants in the different classes of the primary schools, which are invariably annexed to the Normal, and form part and parcel of the establishment.

The director, besides general superintendence, is charged with some important branch of the instruction; the rest is devolved on his adjuncts, or assistant masters, who reside in the establishment.

Any graduate of a Normal School can attend any of the courses of in-

instruction in the Normal School of the department in which he resides, to learn new methods, or improve his previous acquirements. The departments are authorized to grant assistance to such teachers. The Normal Schools admit pupils of different religious denominations. All sectarian instruction is avoided in the general lessons, and the pupils receive this instruction at times set apart for it from clergymen of their own church. Until a pupil has obtained a certificate of his proficiency in the doctrines of his own religion, from a minister of his own church, he can not officiate as a schoolmaster. Any person who ventures to conduct a public school without having obtained from the departmental committee of examination a certificate of qualification, is liable to a fine of two hundred francs.

The Departmental Committee, or Commission of Examination, is composed of at least seven members appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the recommendation of the rector of the academy. Three members at least must be selected from among those who have already exercised, or are at the time exercising the function of public teachers, and who are most likely to unite ability and integrity. It is recommended that one of the seven be a clergyman. "To act," says the Minister, in a circular addressed to each of the twenty-six rectors,—"to act in concert with the three members belonging to the body of Public Instruction in these *Commissions d'examen*, a minister of religion will doubtless be summoned. The law has put moral and religious instruction in the foremost rank; the teacher, therefore, must give proof of his being able to communicate to the children intrusted to his care, those important ideas which are to be the rule of their lives. Doubtless every functionary of public instruction, every father of a family who shall be placed on this commission by your recommendation, as rector of the academy, will be fully able to appreciate the moral and religious attainments of the candidates; but it is, nevertheless, fit and proper, that the future teachers of youth should exhibit proof of their capacity in this respect, before persons whom their peculiar character and special mission more particularly qualify to be judges in this matter."

The most important of all the duties devolved upon these examining commissions, is that of conferring on the pupil, when he quits the institution, a *brevet de capacité*. Carelessness, partiality, or ignorance, in the discharge of it, would entirely defeat the main object of the law on primary instruction. This *brevet*, certifying the holder's fitness to be a teacher, either in the lower or higher grade of primary schools, constitutes his passport to the labors and honors of his profession. With it, and his certificate of good conduct in his pocket, he may carry his skill and industry to any market he pleases, without further let or impediment.

There are three grades of certificates of qualification for both elementary and superior primary; *tres bien*, (very good,) *bien*, (good,) and *assez bien*, (sufficient,) which infuses a spirit of competition throughout the pupils of the Normal Schools, and the public schools generally.

The system of Normal Schools has remained substantially on this basis to the present time. Every year has extended and consolidated its influence in spite of the interested opposition of old and inefficient teachers, who find themselves less and less appreciated, and the complaint of local committees, who in many instances are disposed to take up with the first teacher who presents himself, whether qualified or not. Their number has increased from forty-three in 1833 to ninety-three in 1849, including ten Institutes belonging to the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, and three for female teachers, under the auspices of an association of Christian Education, on a similar plan. In 1834 there were but 1,044 graduates of

Normal Schools employed in the primary schools; in 1848, this number had increased to 10,545.

The Revolution of 1848, disturbed the quiet working of the Normal Schools. The circular of M. Carnot, in March, 1848, exhorting all the schoolmasters of France to use their influence in the ensuing elections to promote the return of sincere republicans, and to combat the popular prejudice which preferred "the rich and lettered citizen, a stranger to the peasant's life, and blinded by interests at variance with the peasant's interests," "to the honest peasant endowed with natural good sense, and whose practical experience of life was better than all the book-learning in the world," caused a reaction against the schoolmasters, when the Revolution gave way to a new style of government in 1850. Teachers who had sympathized and acted in the spirit of the above circular were suspended or dismissed—and the vigorous working of the Normal schools was in various ways weakened. Under the legislation of 1833, the admission to these schools was by competitive examination. By the law of 1850, all examination at entrance was abolished; and the prefect in departmental council, admitted candidates by his own nomination, on their production of certificates of morality and good conduct. Many candidates thus admitted proved utterly incompetent, and in 1855, the minister, M. Fortoul, re-established an entrance examination, no longer competitive, and only in the elementary branches.

To award the certificate of capacity, there sits twice a year, in the chief town of every department, an examination commission of seven members, named by the departmental council; one of the members must be a primary inspector, one a minister of the same religious persuasion as the candidate. The examination is limited to the obligatory studies of the primary school. Any person aged not less than eighteen may appear as a candidate, giving a month's notice of his intention. Exercises in penmanship, dictation, and grammar, and the four rules of arithmetic, including fractions, are performed by the candidates; and if these are satisfactory, then each candidate is examined separately by the commission in reading, religious knowledge, grammar, and arithmetic. Those who pass this examination satisfactorily, may then be examined in all, or any of the optional studies which may now be introduced into the higher class of primary schools. When all is concluded, a list of the successful candidates is drawn up in the order of merit and forwarded to the rector of the Academy who issues the certificate, on which is entered special mention of the optional subjects, and of the degree of satisfaction given to the exercises. The names of those who hold certificates is then entered on the list of admissibility drawn up yearly for each department, and from which the prefect makes his nomination to vacant public schools. The last list contains notes of favorable reports by examination commissions. In 1859, there were in France 70 Normal schools for schoolmasters, with 2,750 students, and 30 institutions for schoolmistresses, besides a number of religious houses for training novices for schools under their auspices.

## CONFERENCES, OR TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS, AND TEACHERS' LIBRARIES.

THE suggestion of M. Cousin in his Report\* as to the utility of conferences of teachers, was not acted upon by the Council of Public Instruction until 1837. In February of that year, a law was presented by the Minister of this department and passed by the Chambers on this subject. The substance of this law is presented in the following remarks by M. Willm, in his valuable treatise on the Education of the People.

"This law treats, in the first place, of the object of conferences; and then, of their epochs and government. The first article authorizes 'the teachers of one or several districts to assemble, with the sanction of the local authorities, and, under the close inspection of the committee of the department, to confer amongst themselves on the different subjects of their teaching—on the ways and methods they employ—and on the principles which ought to be adopted in the education of children and conduct of masters. Every other subject of discussion must be excluded from these conferences.' In regard to this article, I would observe, that it would not be advantageous for teachers who thus assemble to be very numerous; and that they must avoid coming from too great a distance to the place of meeting. Neither must they be very few in number; because, in that case, there would be too little variety and animation in their labors; but, were they more than twelve or fifteen, each would not be able to take an active part in the proceedings.

The second article reminds teachers that the law has placed at the head of the subject-matters of instruction, moral and religious instruction; and that it is their duty to occupy themselves with it. From this it seems to follow, that teachers belonging to different sects must not assemble together in the same conferences. In Alsace, for example, priests or ministers are generally presidents—which is a stronger reason for teachers of different communions not assembling promiscuously together.

The third article says, that the superior committees will point out to the different assemblies the subjects on which the attention of the teachers ought more especially to be fixed. These committees hitherto have, unfortunately, occupied themselves very little with such conferences; some even have opposed their formation, or given them an organization very different from that recommended by the royal council. Can there be no means of remedying this omnipotence of the committees, and regulating that liberty, in such a way as not to risk anarchy?

According to the fourth article, 'each teacher may beg permission to give an account of what he has read since last meeting, to make observations on the works in connection with primary instruction recently published, to read some essay of his own on the discipline of schools, or on some one of the branches of instruction.' Each may, besides, address to the assembly a verbal communication on the art of teaching, submit to it a doubt or difficulty, which in his daily practice he may have met.

The eighth article says that the president of the conferences must always be appointed by the rector of the academy. The president ought, wherever possible, to be selected from such as are not members of the association; he should be some friend and connoisseur of popular education, without being teacher; he will thus direct the debates and labors of the conference with more authority and a wider range of view; the information which he displays in the discharge

\* See page 418.



of his duties will be more varied and profound; and he will be, in the midst of teachers, the interpreter of what the world expects from them.

Every thing will depend on the manner in which their labors are directed, and on the zeal with which the teachers engage in them. One of the principal results of conference ought to be, the exercising them in speaking. Speech is the instrument of the art of teaching. In the management of a school, and in all that concerns the mechanism of teaching, the teacher ought to speak little; his commands ought to be brief; and, in most cases, a word, a gesture, a look will suffice. But in teaching, properly so called, when he is engaged in expounding the first truths of morality and religion, in explaining what has been read by the pupils, in narrating to them the history of the Bible or national history, (sacred or profane history,) in telling them of the wonders of the heavens and the earth—then he must be able to speak with fluency, clearness, and precision, if not eloquently. Children, like men, are fascinated by the charms of speech. The choicest things, badly said, produce on them no impression; and—like arrows, darted by a feeble and trembling hand—glide, so to speak, over the surface of their mind, and never reach its depths.

The essays of the teachers may consist of two kinds. One class may be written on any subjects, but should be analogous to what teachers prescribe to their most advanced pupils—such as some scene of nature, or of human life, a grand or useful thought, an historical fact, &c. These essays ought not to be long; and must be written with that correct simplicity, which is as far removed from the inelegancies of a vulgar style, as from the far-fetched phraseology of the Wit. These first essays—exercises in composition and thought—will also be a means of perfecting the teachers in the art of speaking. The other kind of essays, treating of some branch of the pedagogic art, may be more directly useful to them. In composing them, their memory, their own experience, rather than books, ought to be consulted; and simplicity and truth, rather than novelty and originality, ought to be aimed at. The greatest possible clearness, precision, and actual utility ought to be the distinguishing features of these essays.

In some societies of teachers, the same question is offered to the consideration of all the members,—thus creating amongst them a species of competition: but as every essay must be read and discussed during the meeting, they would be restricted, in following this mode of procedure, to the composition only of two or three a-year; or obliged to multiply, beyond measure, the number of the meetings; and in both cases the interest would be, inevitably, diminished. It is desirable, however, that at each sitting, the same subject be handled by two members. The two essays would compete with each other, and occasion a discussion; which the president would take care to manage, so that all might speak in rotation, and that no one, while speaking, take undue advantage. Every expression of praise or censure, every observation tending to shock self-esteem or modesty, ought, on all sides, to be prohibited. If, at the termination of the sitting, the majority be not sufficiently instructed, they could commission the president, or another member, to resume the discussion at the next conference.

On other occasions, to vary still farther the proceedings, the author of an essay could address it some days before the meeting, in the form of a letter, to one of his colleagues, requesting his opinion of it. The letter and reply might then be read, and their contents discussed in the ordinary manner. This procedure is preferable, in my opinion, to the practice of several societies in Germany. After the reading of an essay, a member is then enjoined to present a criticism of it at next meeting. This method is accompanied with serious inconveniences. Self-love becomes a willing co-operator. The critic endeavors, by every means, to find cause for controversy, and believes himself, in some sense, obliged to think differently from him whom he has been appointed to judge. In this manner concord and friendship, so necessary to the prosperity of the association, are, without great benefit to truth, seriously compromised.

I would add, that copies of all the essays should be deposited in the library, where every one might consult them.

I have said that each member may demand permission to make to the assembly any communication relative to the art of teaching; to submit to it a question, a doubt, an observation, which his practice may have suggested to him. Such communications add much to the interest and utility of conferences. By means of them, the experience of each becomes, in some sense, the experience

of all. Those who have been occupied many years in teaching will aid their junior fellow-laborers.

In fine, it may happen, and it happens but too often, that, in their relations with the local authorities and the parents, differences arise, to disturb the good understanding—the perfect harmony between them and the teachers. These differences should be submitted in the conferences to the appreciation of their colleagues—to the judgment of their compeers. They will thus be less subject to mistakes and anger; and, when necessary, more undaunted in repelling injustice, and in maintaining their rights.

#### LIBRARIES FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

The fifteenth article of the law of February, 1837, on conferences of teachers, provides for the establishment of libraries for the use of those who attend the conferences. By means of the funds which the parishes or the county have granted for this purpose, or by means of clubbing among the teachers, a library should be formed for those who attend the conferences regularly. The books composing the library should be inserted in a catalogue, which must be verified every year. A copy of said catalogue must be sent to the Minister of Public Instruction.

M. Willm makes the following remarks on the subject:

"Such libraries may be established by teachers who do not assemble in regular conferences, or associate for such a purpose. A distinguished teacher may be conceived to address the following language to his colleagues, to induce them to establish such a society: 'Two principal objections may be made against this scheme. In the first place, how, with the scanty resources at our disposal, can we establish a library, in the smallest degree, complete; and then, amongst such a host of books, whose number augments every day, will not a proper selection be difficult—even impossible? In replying to these objections, I will, at the same time, let you know my views on the course to be pursued in the acquisition of books. These views are the results of my own experience, and of the counsels which, in former times, I was fortunate to receive.

I do not dissemble the importance of the doubts I am attempting to remove; the first, especially, seems but too well founded. How, indeed, with our trifling resources, can we hope to establish in a few years a library ever so little worthy of the name? We are ten members; each of us will put into the society's strong box, three shillings as entry money, and a shilling per month, or twelve shillings per annum: this is much for us—too much perhaps; and it is to be desired, that, at a later period, this monthly payment be reduced. We will thus have at our disposal, the first year, the sum of one hundred and fifty shillings. Of this sum, fifteen shillings must be spent in purchasing registers, pens, and paper; and, by adding ten shillings for small incidental expenses, our income will be reduced to one hundred and twenty-five shillings. We must become subscribers for two pedagogic journals, which may cost about twenty-five shillings a year. To lay the foundation of our library, about one hundred shillings remain.

To found, with a hundred shillings, a library, appears absurd—impossible. But let us forget for an instant the ambitious name of library, and simply say that we unite together for the purpose of procuring, in one year, ten times more books than each of us singly could purchase, and it will be granted that we are doing a judicious thing, and making an excellent speculation. Will it not be a sufficiently good result of our association, if, instead of one or two works, which perhaps each of us might have purchased, besides what are indispensable, we have at the end of the year from ten to twenty at our disposal? And supposing we continue at this rate for ten years; instead of from ten to twenty, would we not have from one hundred to two hundred, and perhaps more? And could not our collection, then, without too much vanity, be styled a library? Great things have often sprung from small beginnings. If you persevere, you will have the merit of bequeathing to your successors a considerable number of

books; and, after two or three generations, the teachers of our district will have for their use a valuable library. Is, then, the thought of working for the future of no estimation to the good man, and is not even that thought for us, as says Lafontaine, *a fruit which to-day we enjoy?*

But, besides the satisfaction of founding a work for which our successors will bless us, we ourselves will reap from it precious advantages. By associating, we unshackle the means of instruction. The books besides, which after deliberation and common consent we procure, will be better selected, than if each had been left to his own knowledge. And if you adopt my views of the course to be followed in the acquisition of books, if you select them according to fixed principles, agreed to beforehand, they will form, in the very first year, in spite of their fewness, a finished whole. Ten, twenty volumes selected with judgment, according to a certain plan, and which, by referring to each other, mutually complete and explain each other, are—in spite of the variety of their contents and immediate object—more valuable than three or four times as many works, excellent, perhaps, but chosen at random and inconsequently. From this, it follows, that after ten years' association, we might have at our command, not only ten times more books than we would have had, if each had been left to his own resources; but that these books, more judiciously selected, will have a relative value much greater than the same, or double the number of volumes collected at random.

An association affords still another advantage in this respect. There are works composed of several volumes, and whose price is such, that the majority of teachers are incapable of procuring them at their own expense. United, we can acquire, if necessary, even very expensive works, and some of these publications may be indispensable.

We may, besides, entertain the hope that other teachers will soon join us. I cherish another hope; I hope, if we persevere, that the communities of our district, that the higher committee of our parish and the academy, will come to our aid. As we think not of ourselves alone whilst we are endeavoring to enlarge the limits of our instruction, but of our *schools* and of the *future*, we can, without a blush, invoke the assistance of all who are interested in popular education—of the citizens who discover in it a means of public felicity—and of the authorities intrusted with its direction. Works, we do not doubt, will pour in from different sources, and, if we seriously wish it, we will soon have at our disposal a stock of books, sufficiently respectable to constitute the nucleus of a DISTRICT-SCHOOL LIBRARY.

I come to the second objection—the difficulty of making a suitable selection among so many books. This difficulty is serious; but in proportion to the scantiness of our means, we are less liable to be misled. This consideration, far from discouraging us, ought only to impress still more deeply the principles which ought to guide our selection.

The number of works on all subjects, has, for a century especially, prodigiously increased. The science of education, for a long time neglected, and treated by some distinguished writers only at distant intervals, reckons, in our days, its books by hundreds—if we comprehend those addressed especially to childhood and youth. But we must not be frightened by this multitude; this riches, in the main, is but apparent. Many of those works whose titles swell the catalogues of the booksellers, are old and obsolete; many others are but imitations and of little value. Good writers of every kind are not numerous; and even among the good, a selection can be made. The essential point is to know how to select well. As to old books, we will trust to their reputation, which seldom misleads; and as to new books, we will consult enlightened men.

Of the works recognized as good, we will always select the best and the most complete. To read *much* is not the principal point, but to read *well*; and to read often the *best* productions. The fruits which may be reaped from reading, depend as much upon the manner of reading, as upon the excellence of the books read.

Our library will be composed of three kinds of works. In the first rank, we shall place such as treat of the art of education; of teaching in general; of primary instruction in particular. It will not be necessary to secure a great number of books of this class; a few solid and complete treatises, which epitomise the science, will suffice for the commencement. The most essential precepts and the rules universally approved, are found in all good productions of

any length. To good treatises, however, to encyclopedic manuals, which exhibit pedagogy as a whole, and which, faithful to the precept, *prove all things and cleave to what is good*—unite what even the different methods possess of most practical and reasonable—we will add, later works upon the most remarkable special methods. Still later, in a few years, we may be able to admit into our collection a certain number of works already old, which, like Rousseau's *Emile*, have formed an epoch in the history of the art of education; then, to keep pace with the progress of the science, we only have to procure, at distant intervals, some good new treatise.

The second series of works of our future library, should consist of such as expound either the whole or some branch of primary instruction; of manuals of religion and morality; of arithmetic, geography, and general or national history; natural history, physics, hygiene, agriculture, and technology; written expressly for teachers, children, and the people.

Finally, the richest portion of our library might be composed of instructive and rare works, which, while adding to our knowledge, will afford useful relaxation, and the means of infusing into our lessons a wholesome variety; of exciting and sustaining the attention of our pupils, and of throwing an interest around our teaching.

I rank in this third class of books, *first*, extracts or selections from travels in the different quarters of the globe. They will supply the place of the original narratives, too dear, and which include, besides, generally many very useless details, or things already known. There is scarcely any kind of reading more interesting than the history of travels in distant countries, and which furnishes the most useful materials for the instruction of youth.

*Secondly*, historical works, particularly natural history, selecting, in preference, such as have been composed for the young of schools. We might extract from them, to narrate to our pupils, those traits of magnanimity and devotedness to one's country and humanity, which constitute the beauty and honor of history.

*Thirdly*, I would place in our library a few religious and national poets; good anthologies; selections and collections of pieces in prose and verse; a few books more especially written for the instruction and amusement of childhood and youth, and which can be read to and by our pupils.

*Fourthly*, popular works which, addressed directly to the people, in towns and in the country, strive to snatch them from the misery of ignorance, to render them better and happier; and which adapt to their capacity, morality, counsels of prudence, and the most interesting and useful results of science in general. Till each parish possess its own library, we shall form, as it were, an intermediate stage, a connecting link, between science and the people. To explain these books, and to facilitate the comprehension of them, we must ourselves be thoroughly acquainted with them. We will find in them, besides, an abundant source of instruction for ourselves and for our pupils.

In short, my dear Colleagues, our library ought to consist of a small number of works on methods; manuals of all the branches of primary instruction and of the education of the people; and many instructive and popular works. Thus, all works of pure amusement, and such as are not addressed directly either to schools or youth, to the people or to the teachers of the people, must be excluded. By confining ourselves within these limits, our selection will not be difficult; especially if we be guided by men well versed in such matters. Let us begin the work; let us persevere in the prosecution of it; and soon we shall have to congratulate ourselves on having undertaken it, and on having founded, at the expense of a few light sacrifices, an institution of incontestable utility."

## MEANS OF IMPROVING

### THE PECUNIARY CONDITION OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

The provisions of the French law respecting Teachers' Conferences and Libraries, and the remarks of M. Willm, are intended to show how teachers, by association, may add to the acquirements of the Normal School, keep pace with new methods and discoveries, clear up the difficulties and supply the wants met with in their particular position, and escape from that meaningless routine of practices, and dull uniformity of character, to which their profession pursued alone exposes them. But the French law aims, although imperfectly, to ameliorate the teacher's condition, and the condition of his family, by guarding against present and future want. On these points M. Willm makes many judicious suggestions from which American teachers may profit.

"If poverty be always an evil, it is especially so to the teacher; because it prevents him from performing efficiently his duty, and enjoying due distinction. His functions will be doubly painful, if the cares of the morrow deprive him of the energy sufficient to accomplish his daily task. I demand not wealth for the teacher: I ask not that he be rich, but beyond the reach of indigence; that he be able to live in honest ease, without being obliged to devote himself to labors foreign to his profession; that he have the power to continue his studies, to support a family, and to enjoy an honorable repose in his old age—if Heaven accord him length of days—or die undisturbed as to the future lot of his children, if carried away from them in the midst of his career.

The condition of the teacher is at present widely different from this. The law of 1833 has undoubtedly bettered his lot;—and it were ungrateful to deny it. It may be said, indeed, that in general, schoolmasters are better paid in France than in most other countries. In Germany there are a considerable number who do not gain the minimum salary of four hundred francs; and even in Prussia, the average—every thing included—is, for a town-teacher, eight hundred francs; for a country teacher, about three hundred francs: and let us remark that, in Prussia, living is much dearer than in France. It is not necessary to reckon up in detail our every-day expenses, to be convinced that, with such a paltry income, it is wholly impossible to maintain housekeeping on the most economical principle; and that a family of industrious laborers has much greater chance of prospering than that of a teacher.

In France, I repeat, teachers are, in general, much better paid. In towns, it is seldom that they do not gain from one thousand to twelve hundred francs; and in several localities their income exceeds this. In the country, there are few whose salary is under five hundred francs; and many gain a great deal more. But five hundred francs and one thousand francs are but poor remuneration for three hundred and sixty-five days' labor; for to gain even that sum, the teacher is most frequently obliged to add to the functions of schoolmaster, those of beadle, organist, and chanter; such a sum is too inconsiderable to support a family; for we always take for granted that the teacher is married, and has a family: and that so he sets a good example, and is rendered more qualified to train men and citizens.

The condition of teachers must therefore be improved; it must be rendered more pleasant, and, at the same time, more respected, not only with a regard to their interests, but especially for the sake of schools, of the people, and of the state itself.

1. Teachers may themselves do much to ameliorate their lot, and raise their condition. They must remember the old proverb—*help yourself, and Heaven will help you*. M. Schlez, a much esteemed German teacher, thinks that a teacher should always follow some trade, avoiding scrupulously, however, every degrading calling, or which might bring him into competition with the inhabitants of the district. He proposes, as compatible with the functions of the teacher of the people, gardening; the cultivation and grafting of trees; the rearing of bees and silk-worms; musical instrument-making; clock-making; bookbinding; bandbox-making; moulding; painting; the art of turning; the construction of barometers and thermometers; the duties of copyist and book-keeper—and, finally, private lessons. But many of these occupations would require too long an apprenticeship, or engage too much time, to render them lucrative; or they would need an outlay beyond the ordinary means of a teacher. Country teachers might find a valuable resource, as well as a noble recreation, in the cultivation of a garden of limited extent, which all districts ought to have at their disposal; and the ground of which, if it could not be purchased, they might almost always find opportunity to rent.

The art of gardening, which includes the grafting of trees, the cultivation of useful plants and of flowers, appears the most compatible with the occupation of teachers; between them are close analogies. That art can be learned at small expense, and in a short time. The teacher who, from his being well paid, needs not devote himself to pursuits foreign to his profession, might follow it simply for amusement; others would find it a means of improving their condition: and the employment would neither be degrading nor fatiguing. I have seen one of these gardens cultivated by a teacher, whose school was a garden blessed to him by Heaven. One division of it furnished kitchen vegetables; another was planted with fruit-trees of the best sorts; a third, was a nursery exceedingly varied, and flowers abounded in every quarter. Often he led to it his select pupils; his garden was at once a source of pleasure and profit to himself, and of instruction to his school. This example ought to be generally imitated. To the cultivation of a garden and orchard, country teachers might join, according to circumstances, the rearing of bees or silk-worms. During winter, study and instruction ought exclusively to occupy them, and nothing should prevent their keeping an evening-school for adults, or for young people from fifteen to twenty years of age, as is done in several districts of Alsace. This evening-school, which might be of great utility, would supplement a little income; and it depends but on the interest they had in it, to induce a great number of their old pupils to take an active part in this additional instruction. Bandbox-making and book-binding, would likewise be suitable occupations, but not very lucrative.

Shall I inform the country teachers that they have in their own power another means of being in less uneasy circumstances, and that this means is rigid economy, a retired and unassuming life? I have scarcely courage to do so, for the majority are indeed forced to be economical. There is, however, a considerable number who frequent inns and coffee-shops; and who are too much engaged in public amusements, little compatible with the moral authority which they ought to exercise, or with the state of their fortune. Without preventing them, on certain occasions, from mingling with public life, and sharing the honest pleasures of society, they ought to be counseled not to be prodigal of themselves, nor to court these occasions; but carefully to avoid whatever may tend to compromise their dignity, or lead them into useless expense.

In several Normal Schools, the pupil-masters are taught to draw up *civil acts*, as a great many of them will one day become registrars at the mayoralty. Such functions very well correspond with those of teachers in small parishes where there are few acts to write, provided the registrar-teacher can abstain from mixing himself up with the *municipal passions*, often very violent in the smallest villages. Some, likewise, compete with the notary, and for a trifling salary, draw out contracts in private.

Land-surveying affords another resource; a very inconsiderable number can be employed in it, and little dependence should be placed on it.

In short, besides a life sober and modest, the cultivation of trees, the rearing of bees and silkworms, a little rural and domestic economy, private lessons, the functions of registrar, land-surveying, and, perhaps, book-binding and bandbox-making, are the methods by which teachers may ameliorate their condition,



without neglecting their duties, or derogating from their dignity. There is, however, still another resource which might be valuable: it is that which teachers may find in the assistance of their partners: if they knew well how to choose—if they chose not such as are rich, but such as are economical, well-educated, good, and intelligent. I know some who are not only good house-keepers, but who render great services to the community by the examples and lessons they give to the young girls of the district.

Teachers' wives, in the absence of sisters or governesses, properly so called, ought to be able to undertake the teaching of needle-work and other similar branches, as well as the management of infant-schools, throughout all the rural districts. Their rank, as mothers, far from being an obstacle, would adapt them still better for the discharge of such functions; and when temporarily prevented from accomplishing them themselves, they would easily find among the young girls they had trained, assistants to supply their place.

2. Communes (corresponding to our parishes, towns and districts) may place at the disposal of the teacher a portion of ground capable for farming, an orchard and garden. To the school-house, which the 19th article of the organic law obliges every parish to provide for the teacher, ought always to be annexed, in the country, a piece of ground for a garden. If it were impossible to purchase such a piece of ground, the parish might secure it on a long lease, or supply its place by an annual indemnification of fifty francs to the teacher. In fine, the parishes that possess the means, should be obliged to supplement the fixed legal salary, in proportion to the increase of their ordinary revenue. Several general councils have voted funds to indemnify teachers who attend *conferences*, and to aid in the maintenance of libraries established by them. This example ought to be generally imitated. Instead of limiting themselves to making up the exact legal salary of teachers, when the revenues of the parishes are deficient, the counties ought to aid such as can not raise the salary of their school-masters to the minimum of five hundred francs, comprising every kind of emolument. The majority of the general councils vote funds for improving the breed of horses and cattle; why could they not establish a few premiums for the amelioration of mankind? Why could they not grant, every year, a few prizes to the best teachers of each district—those whom the reports of the inspectors and the committees recognized as the best? In fine, the parishes—and, they failing, the counties and the state—ought always to provide a moderate retiring provision for deserving teachers; so that they may not dread retiring, when age unfits them for the maintenance of discipline. The higher school authorities,—the departmental and county councils,—could add to the premium now required by law.

3. The nation alone can make thorough provision for the necessary amelioration of teachers, who are now public functionaries, and intrusted with the education of the people. That they may discharge their functions with courage and devotedness, it is necessary, after they have been properly trained in the Normal Schools, and their morality and capacity well attested, to make them a suitable appointment, so as to enable them to devote themselves exclusively to their school-duties; to live honorably, though unostentatiously, and to continue improving themselves. It is necessary, besides, to afford them a pension when old age renders retreat imperative, and to remove from them all apprehensions as to the lot of their families should they die prematurely—victims of their zeal in executing their painful duties.

Let me be permitted to observe, that the law of June, 1833—that law, in other respects, so full of wisdom, which grateful posterity will always quote with respect, and from which dates truly good primary instruction in France—that law, I say, whilst declaring popular schools a public obligation, a social necessity, and raising teachers to the rank of communal and irremovable functionaries, has not done enough to render their condition what it ought to be, nor sufficiently armed the executive for the strict execution of the law.

The twelfth article says, that every parish teacher shall be provided with a locality, properly situated for a habitation and the reception of pupils. I have mentioned, elsewhere, how this order of the law has, in many places, been executed; and in what sense many parishes understand the word *properly*.

The same article guarantees the primary teacher a fixed salary of at least two hundred francs: it is now pretty generally acknowledged, that the minimum should be raised to three hundred francs: it results from calculations made by

the Minister of Public Instruction in his last report, that to raise the minimum to three hundred francs, it would be requisite to add a million to the budget, and that the said sum would fall to the account of the department. I will not ask what is a million amid a budget of a thousand millions, and what is a million portioned out among the eighty-six counties; I know that the resources of France are great: her wants are likewise immense. But I will say, that the country should consider no sacrifice too costly to secure a service so important as that of popular instruction; and that it ought not, in this respect, to be behind any civilized nation.

The monthly fee, which, according to the fourteenth article, ought to be collected by tax-gatherers in the ordinary form, is the principal source of the teachers' income; but the law has left the fixing of it too much to the arbitrary inclination of the municipal councils. An additional paragraph inserted, upon the proposal of M. Antoine Passy, in the third article of the law of receipts, 1841, submits this fee and the number of gratuitous pupils to the approval of the prefects, who, on the advice of the district committees, may fix a minimum rate for the monthly fee, and a maximum one for the number of gratuitous admissions. The faithful execution of this legislative enactment would be a great benefit: let me hope, that in the next report of the minister, the lot of teachers shall appear every where ameliorated by its means. We must not believe, however, that it will be so productive as to exempt the legislature from raising the minimum fixed salary to three hundred francs.

The law has, at the same time, wished to guarantee the future of teachers. Two methods presented themselves for this object. To deduct from their fixed salary five per cent., as is done with the functionaries of the University, and thus to acquire for them a right to a retiring pension, or to establish simply a savings' or provident-box, in every respect like the ordinary ones; with this difference, that the deposits should be obligatory, and that they could not be withdrawn but at the retiring or death of the depositors. The first of these two systems has the disadvantage—in case of the more or less premature death of a teacher—of depriving his family of the amount deducted from his salary in favor of the surviving teachers. The second system, on the contrary, that of savings-boxes, makes them run no chance of risk; having reached the end of their career, the product of their economy is restored either to themselves when they retire, or to their families, should they die in the discharge of their duties.

It is this last system which the law has sanctioned by establishing savings-boxes, formed by the annual deduction of a twentieth from the fixed salary of each parish teacher. This system has been found fault with, for producing but a poor resource for a deserving teacher and his family. Indeed, the deduction of a twentieth from a fixed salary of two hundred francs will produce, of capital and interest, at the end of ten years, only a reserve of one hundred and twenty francs, five centimes; at the end of fifteen years, only a reserve of two hundred francs, fifteen centimes; at the end of twenty years, it will produce about three hundred francs; at the end of twenty-five years, a little more than four hundred francs; at the end of thirty years, about five hundred francs; and forty years' service are necessary to save, in this manner, a thousand francs. The same deduction made upon a fixed salary of three hundred francs will produce one hundred and eighty francs, at the end of ten years; four hundred and fifty francs, at the end of twenty years; eight hundred and forty francs, at the end of thirty years; and about one thousand four hundred and twenty-five francs, after forty years' service. A deduction of twenty francs per annum would amount, in ten years, to two hundred and forty francs; in twenty years, to about six hundred francs; in thirty years, to about one thousand one hundred and twenty francs; at the end of forty years, one thousand nine hundred francs.

We see that, in supposing each teacher to deposit twenty francs a year, this system would still leave much scope for improvement; since, after twenty or forty years' hard labor, it guarantees the teacher only from fifty to one hundred francs of revenue.

To render these saving-boxes of great importance, it would be necessary, in my opinion, to make the deduction of a twentieth, not only from their *fixed* salary, but likewise from the *casual* one, from the *monthly fee*; a thing easily done, as this fee must be collected by the ordinary tax-gatherers.

A mixed system would perhaps be preferable—a system that would unite, as

much as possible, the advantage of savings-boxes and of deductions made from the salaries, to constitute a fund for retiring pensions. For this purpose, it would be necessary to establish in each chief city, a box, which should be both for savings and deductions, to which the teachers, the districts, and the counties should contribute, and which might receive gifts and legacies. I shall leave to more skillful financiers, the task of developing this idea, and of showing how it might be executed; I limit myself to laying its foundation. Let me suppose a county composed of five hundred districts, and reckoning six hundred and fifty public teachers: this is almost the condition of the Lower Rhine. Let me suppose that this county consents to disburse per annum into the schools'-box, the sum of five thousand francs; that, on their part, the five hundred districts pay into it, annually, at an average, ten francs, which is one thousand francs—in fine, that a deduction of fifteen francs is made from the salaries of the six hundred and fifty teachers, which makes annually seven thousand seven hundred and fifty francs; let me suppose farther, that all these payments amount together to twenty thousand francs per annum, and we will have, at the end of ten years, without counting interest, or probable gifts and legacies, a sum of two hundred thousand francs; and, after twenty years, four hundred thousand francs; a capital which, placed at four per cent., would produce sixteen thousand francs of interest. This interest would be divided, according to an understood ratio, between the deserving and infirm teachers, and the widows and orphans of teachers deceased. To have a right to a retiring pension, it should be necessary to give proofs of infirmity, or of at least thirty years' service. Widows would lose their claims on remarrying; and the children would cease to receive their portion at twenty-one years of age. It should be understood that the districts, small in number, which themselves might engage to provide retiring pensions to deserving teachers, should be at liberty to do so, and be exempted from contributing to the county-box.

This box—which should, especially and essentially, be a fund for pensions—would be a *savings-box* only for such teachers as have been obliged, from bad conduct, to resign their functions, or who voluntarily give them up, and without being unwell, before having served thirty years. The amount only of what they had paid in, should, without interest, be restored to them. The same should be done with such as leave for situations elsewhere; their disbursements should be transmitted to the box of the county to which they go.

Every one would gain by realizing this scheme: there would be a loss sustained only by such as abandoned their calling, or by children become majors at the death of their fathers. The enactment, again, might, according to circumstances, stipulate for some succor to the latter, and even in favor of the children of destitute teachers. But to render such a box truly productive, the concurrence of the counties and districts is indispensable. We might hope, likewise, that many friends of popular education would assist it, especially at the commencement. After twenty or twenty-five years, the box would subsist of itself, and without any other fresh contributions, save of those concerned.

In short, what is necessary to render the condition of the teachers comfortable, is, in the first place, a convenient dwelling-house, with a garden in the rural districts; then a fixed salary of at least 300 francs, with a casual salary proportioned to the number of scholars, and resulting from a monthly fee, fixed by the municipal councils, subject to the approval of his prefects, and collected by the tax-gatherers; finally, a county-box for retiring pensions, and for aid to the widows and orphans, supplied by the concurrence of the counties, the districts, and the teachers. Encouragements, premiums adjudged by the counties to the most deserving, and succor granted to the most necessitous districts, would usefully complete this system.

The medals which at our anniversaries are distributed every year can have no real value until their recipients are beyond the reach of want. Honorary distinctions add, besides, to the consideration of such as are the objects of them; and they contribute more to the interests of the body to which they belong, than to those of the men who have been decorated by them. It would, therefore, be very useful, that, from time to time, this *bullion recompense*, to which M. Guizot refers in his beautiful circular, attest to the most experienced and devoted teacher that the government watches over their services and knows how to honor them.

## PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS

### OF VERSAILLES AND DIJON.

THE Primary Normal School of Versailles is for the Department of Seine and Oise. It comprises within its ample premises\* several establishments for the instruction and practice of teachers. The school itself contains eighty pupils under regular instruction throughout the year, and furnishes a two months' course to adult schoolmasters. The establishments for practice begin with the infant school, and rise through the primary to the grade of primary superior. Of the elementary schools, one affords the young teachers an example of the method of mutual, and another of simultaneous instruction. The primary superior school had been recently established, at the date of my visit, in 1837. There is, besides, an evening department for the elementary instruction of adults, taught by the pupils of the Normal School, and also a school of design, which is established here rather for convenience than as properly belonging to the range of the institution.

The whole establishment is under the immediate control of a director (Mr. Le Brun), subject to the authority of a committee, and of the university, the inspectors of which make regular visits. The committee inspect the school by sub-committees once a month, visiting the recitation-rooms of the professors without giving special notice—a plan much to be preferred to that of stated visits. If a member of a committee desires questions to be put upon any particular points, he calls upon the professor to extend his examination, or asks questions himself. The director examines the classes frequently, or is present at the lessons. There are eight professors for the various courses, and two "repeaters" (répétiteurs), these latter superintending the pupils when not with the professors, and giving them assistance if required. The repeaters are responsible for the execution of the order of the day in the institution, and for the police, and one of them sleeps in each of the two dormitories. Some of the teachers in the Normal School also give instruction in the model schools, and have charge of the pupils while engaged in the practical exercises. The domestic economy is under the charge of the director, but he is allowed an assistant, who actually discharges the duty of superintendence, and who has brought this department into most excellent order.†

There are a certain number of gratuitous places, to which pupils are admitted by competition, those found best prepared at the examination for admission having the preference. Pay pupils are also received at a very moderate rate,‡ but are exactly on the same footing, in reference to the duties of the institution, with the former. Young men who wish to compete for a place, and are not sufficiently prepared, may enter as pay pupils, and thus receive instruction directly applicable to their object. The age of admission is, by rule, between sixteen and twenty-one, but the former limit is considered too early for profitable entrance. The qualifications for admission consist in a thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in the elementary schools.

The period of instruction is two years. The first year is devoted to the

\* Used under a former dynasty to accommodate the hounds of Charles X.

† During the first year of the institution, the fare of each student cost fifty-nine centimes (twelve cents) per day. They had meat twice a day, except on the feast of the Church.

‡ Five hundred francs, or about one hundred dollars, per annum.

revision of elementary studies, and the second to an extension of them, and to theoretical and practical instruction in the science and art of teaching. The subjects of revision or instruction are, reading, writing, linear drawing, geography, history, the drawing of maps, morals and religion, vocal music, arithmetic, elementary physics, terraculture, and pedagogy.

The religious instruction is given by an ecclesiastic, who is almoner to the school; it includes lessons on the doctrines and history of the church, given twice per week. Protestants are not required to attend these lessons, but receive instruction out of the institution from a minister of their own confession.

Physical education is conducted by means of exercises in gymnastics, by walks, and the practice of gardening. In summer the pupils bathe once a week. The gymnastic exercises are taught by the more expert pupils to the scholars of the model schools, and appear to have taken well among them.

The pupils study in a room common to all, and the degree of attention which they pay, and their conduct, are marked, according to a uniform scale, by the superintending "repeater," and reported daily to the director. Once every month the professor examines these classes on the studies of the past month, and reports the standing. Marks are also given for great proficiency and attention, which are reported with the standing. These marks, and those of the examination, are summed up, and when they amount to a certain number for the month, the pupil is entitled to a premium. The premiums consist of books uniformly bound, and accompanied by a certificate. Report is made of these pupils to the minister of public instruction, and the record may serve them when desirous to secure a particular place. The director assembles the school to hear an account of these monthly reports, and makes such remarks as they may suggest.

Besides the more usual school implements, this institution has a library, a small collection of physical and chemical apparatus, of technological specimens, already of considerable interest, and of models of agricultural implements. There are also two gardens, one of which is laid out to serve the purposes of systematic instruction in horticulture, the other of which contains specimens of agricultural products, and a ground for gymnastic exercises. The pupils work by details of three at a time, under the direction of the gardener, in cultivating flowers, fruits, vegetables, &c. They have the use of a set of carpenters' and joiners' tools, with which they have fitted up their own library in a very creditable way.\* In the second year they receive lectures on the science and art of teaching, and in turn give instruction in the schools, under the direction of the teachers. Their performances are subsequently criticised for their improvement.

The order of the day in summer is as follows:

The pupils rise at five, wash, make up their beds, and clean their dormitories, in two divisions, which alternate; meet in the study-hall at half past five for prayers, breakfast, engage in studies or recitation until one; dine and have recreation until two; study or recite until four; have exercises or recreation, sup, study, and engage in religious reading and prayers; and retire at ten, except in special cases. Before meals there is a grace said, and during meals one of the pupils reads aloud.

In distributing the time devoted to study and recitation, an hour of study is made to precede a lesson, when the latter requires specific preparation; when, on the contrary, the lesson requires after-reflection to fix its principles, or consists of a lecture, of which the notes are to be written out, the study hour follows the lesson. The branches of a mechanical nature are inter-

\* A carpenter who came to attend the evening classes was found by the director so intelligent, that he advised him to prepare for the school. The young man succeeded in entering, at the annual competition, and subsequently, on leaving the school, received one of the best appointments of his year as a teacher.

persed with the intellectual. The students of the second year are employed, in turn, in teaching, and are relieved from other duties during the hours devoted to the schools of practice.

On Sunday, after the morning service, the pupils are free to leave the walls of the institution. The same is the case on Thursday afternoon. The director has found, however, bad results from these indiscriminate leaves of absence.

The discipline of the school is mild, the age and objects of the pupils being such that the use of coercive means is seldom required. The first step is admonition by a "repeater" or professor, the next a private admonition by the director. If these means prove ineffectual, dismissal follows. The director has great influence, from his personal character, and from the fact that his recommendation can secure a good place\* to the pupil immediately on leaving the school. The mode of life in the institution is very simple. The pupils are neatly but roughly dressed, and perform most of the services of police for themselves. The dormitories are very neat. The bedsteads are of wrought-iron, corded at the bottom. During the night the clothes are deposited in small boxes near the beds. The extra articles of clothing are in a common room. Cleanliness of dress and person are carefully enjoined. The fare is plain, but good, and the arrangements connected with the table unexceptionable. There is an infirmary attached to the school, which is, however, but rarely used.

The schools for practice do not require special description, as their organization will be sufficiently understood from what has already been said of primary schools, and they have not been long enough in operation to acquire the improved form which, I cannot doubt, they will receive under the present able director of the Normal School.

The Primary Normal School at Dijon, for the Department of Côte d'Or, in its general organization, is the same as that at Versailles. It differs, however, in one most important particular, which involves other differences of detail. All the instruction, except of religion and music, as well as the superintendence, is under the charge of the director and a single assistant, who, by the aid of the pupils, carry on the schools of practice, as well as the courses of the Normal School. This arrangement limits the amount of instruction, and interferes very materially with the arrangement of the studies. The school is conducted, however, with an excellent spirit. An idea of the plan will be obtained from the order of the day, which also contains an outline of the course of instruction.

From five to six A. M., the pupils say their prayers, wash, &c. From six to seven the higher division has a lesson in French grammar. The lower receives a lesson in geography or history alternately. From seven to eight, the higher division has a lesson in geography or history alternately; the lower division in arithmetic. From eight to half past eight, breakfast and recreation. From half past eight until eleven, a portion of the higher division is employed in the primary schools of practice, and the others are engaged in study. From eleven until one, writing and linear drawing for both divisions. From one until two, dinner and recreation. From two until half past four, as from half past eight to eleven. Recreation until five. From five to six, instruction in instrumental or vocal music for each division alternately. From six to seven, the higher division has a lesson in geometry, or its applications; the lower division in French grammar. From seven until a quarter before eight, supper and recreation. From this time until nine, the higher division has a lesson in physical science or natural history, mechanics, agriculture, and rural economy, or book-keeping; the lower di-

\* The best places, in point of emolument, are worth from fifteen to eighteen hundred francs (about \$300 to \$360).



vision in reading. The last quarter of an hour is occupied by both divisions in prayers, after which they retire. This order applies to all the days of the week but Thursday, when, from eight to ten, the pupils receive moral and religious instruction; from ten to eleven, instruction in the forms of simple, legal, and commercial writings; and from two to four, engaged in the review of part of the week's studies. On the afternoon of Thursday the schools of practice are not in session.

On Sunday, after the duties following their rising, the pupils are occupied in studying and revising some of the lessons of the week. From nine to ten o'clock, in religious reading, aloud. At ten they go to service in the parish chapel, attended by the director and his assistant. Receive moral and religious instruction, on their return, until dinner-time. After dinner, attend the evening service, and then take a walk. In the evening, assemble for conversation on pedagogical subjects, and for prayers.

#### NORMAL SCHOOL AT BORDEAUX.

The Normal School at Bordeaux is maintained by the department of the Gironde, and that of Lot and Garonne, each establishing scholarships in it for its own students. In 1859 there were fifty-one students on a course of three years, conforming to the legal programme of the primary school. The student is not allowed to pass from the obligatory to the optional studies until he has given proof of his thorough knowledge, and his ability to teach the former in the practicing school annexed. Much attention is given to method.

The teaching staff consists of a director or teacher, two lecturers, and a chaplain. The main work of instruction devolves on the director, who has just received the decoration of the Legion of Honor for his success. The students are boarded on the premises—sleep in one vast dormitory, and their dietary is regulated by a ministerial decree.

The annual charge is 400 francs. Each student pays from his own resources 100 francs for the first year. After the first year, a certain number of the best students are entitled to scholarships provided by the departments.

A good garden is attached to the establishment, and lessons in horticulture and agriculture are given and greatly enjoyed by the students.

## NORMAL SCHOOL\*

FOR

TEACHERS OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

AT PARIS.

THE "Normal School," intended to furnish professors for colleges, was established in 1794, by the same convention which created the polytechnic school. The organization proposed by the law was upon a scale entirely beyond the wants to be supplied; and, notwithstanding the exertions of its eminent professors, the school had but a temporary existence, and ill success, mainly from the unprepared state of the pupils who had entered it, and to whom the kind of instruction was entirely unadapted. There were thirteen courses of lectures, and among the professors were Lagrange, Laplace, Haüy, Monge, Berthollet, Volney, Bernardin St. Pierre, Sicard, and Laharpe. The school was suppressed by a decree of April, 1795, and its pupils dispersed. After the reorganization of the university, in 1806, the expediency of reviving the normal school appears to have been felt, and it was reorganized in 1808. The number of pupils provided for in the new plan was three hundred; but from 1810 to 1826 there were never more than fifty-eight actually in attendance. According to the plan of instruction, lectures were to be attended out of doors, and interrogations and study to take place within the school, under the charge of the elder pupils. The recitations of the pupils to each other were called conferences; a name which is still preserved, being applied to the lessons given by the teachers, who are called masters of conferences. The duration of the course of instruction was limited at first to two years, but subsequently extended to three. The school was a second time suppressed, in 1822; and in 1826 an institution, termed a "preparatory school," was substituted for it, which in its turn was abolished, and the old normal school revived by a decree of the lieutenant-general of the kingdom, on the 6th of August, 1830. A report was made by M. Cousin, Secretary of the Council of Public Instruction, in October, 1830, the recommendations of which were adopted substantially. New regulations for the course of study, the general arrangements and discipline, have been gradually prepared, and the school has commenced a career of usefulness which it bids fair to prosecute with increasing success.

The chief purpose of the normal school is to give its pupils ample opportunities of preparation for the competition for places of adjuncts in the colleges (*cours d'agrégation*), and its arrangements are all subordinate to this object. In this competition, however, the pupils of the school meet on an equal footing, merely, with all other candidates.

The officers, in 1837, were, the director, who did not reside at the school, nor take part in the instruction; the director of studies, the resident head of the establishment; eight masters of conferences for the section of letters; six masters of conferences, and one for the drawing department, for the section of sciences; two preparers (*préparateurs*); a sub-director, charged with a general superintendence of the pupils, and two assistants, called superintending masters. The masters of conferences have, in general, equivalent duties to the professors in the colleges. In 1837 there were eighty pupils in the school, of whom forty-nine were supported entirely by the funds allowed by the government, and eighteen had half their expenses defrayed.

The normal school at present occupies a part of the buildings belonging

\* From Bache's *Education in Europe*.

to the Royal College of Louis-le-Grand, and the college furnishes the food and clothing of the pupils by agreement with the school. This connection has advantages, and among them, that of enabling the pupils to have some practice in teaching; but they are more than counterbalanced by disadvantages, and the friends of the school are earnest in their endeavors to procure a separate domicile for it. The accommodations for lodging, study, instruction, and exercise, as far as the building and its site are concerned, are certainly of a most limited kind.

*Admission.*—The number of pupils who may be admitted is determined every year by the probable number required to fill the vacancies in secondary instruction. The admissions are made by competition, and for the most successful competitors a limited number of bursaries (*bourses*) are established, divisible into half bursaries, which are distributed to those who require assistance. The candidates enter their names at the academy nearest to their residence, between the fifteenth of June and of July, every year. Each candidate deposits the following certificates, viz., of the date of birth, showing that he is over seventeen and under twenty-three years of age; of having been vaccinated; of moral conduct; of having completed, or being about to complete, his studies, including philosophy, and, if he intends to become a teacher of science, a course of special mathematics and of physics; a declaration from his parent or guardian, if the candidate is a minor, that he will devote himself for ten years, from the period of admission, to public instruction. These lists are forwarded by the rectors of the several academies, with their remarks, to the council of public instruction, which returns, before the first of August, a list of those persons who may be examined for admission. This examination is made in the several academies, with a view to select the most prominent candidates, whose cases are to be ultimately decided by competition at the school in Paris. It consists of compositions upon subjects which are the same for all the academies, and of interrogations and oral explanations. For the candidates, as future instructors in letters, the written exercises are a dissertation, in French, on some points of philosophy, an essay in Latin, an essay in French, a Latin and Greek version, and Latin verses. The oral examinations turn upon the classical authors read in college, and upon the elements of philosophy, rhetoric, and history. The candidates in science have the same written exercises in philosophy and in Latin versions, and in addition, must solve one or more questions in mathematics and physics. The oral examinations are upon subjects of mathematics, physics, and philosophy, taught in the philosophy class of the colleges. All the written exercises and notes of the oral examinations are forwarded to the minister of public instruction, and submitted severally to a committee of letters and a committee of science, taken from among the masters of the normal school, the director being chairman of each committee. These committees decide whether the candidates are fit to be allowed to present themselves for examination at the school, and those who are deemed worthy, receive a notice to report themselves on or before the fifteenth of October. Previous to this competition the candidates are required to present their diploma of bachelor of letters or of sciences. The masters of the normal school are divided into two committees, one of letters and the other of science, for conducting these examinations, which are oral, and the result of which determines the admission or rejection of the candidate. On admission, the pupil makes an engagement to devote himself to public instruction for ten years.

*Instruction.*—The present arrangement of the courses of instruction can only be regarded as provisional, improvements being gradually introduced, as observation shows their necessity. The principle declared by the director, M. Cousin, to be that of the school in this respect, is worthy of all commendation. "When," says M. Cousin, in his Report of 1835-6, "experi-

\* *Ecole Normale. Règlements, programmes, et rapports. Paris, 1837.*

ence shows the necessity or utility of a measure which the fundamental regulations of the school have not provided for, it is by no means proposed at once to the royal council for adoption as an article of the regulations; authority is asked to put it to the test of practice, and it is only when found repeatedly successful that it is deemed prudent to convert it into a regulation." A close observation of the merits and defects of the system is thus made to pave the way for judicious changes.

The full course of the school, at present, occupies three years. The pupils are divided into two sections, that of letters and of science, which pursue separate courses. In the section of letters, the first year is devoted to a revision, and the second to an extension, of the higher courses of the colleges, and the third is especially employed in fitting the pupils to become professors. In fulfilling this object, however, no instruction in the science or art of teaching is given in the establishment, nor is it obligatory upon the pupils to teach, so that, as far as systematic practice goes, they derive no direct benefit from the school; it is a privilege, however, which many enjoy, to be called to give lessons in some of the royal colleges, particularly in that with which the school is now connected by its locality. When the pupil intends to devote himself to teaching in the grammar classes of the colleges, or is found not to have the requisite ability for taking a high rank in the body of instructors, he passes at once from the first year's course to the third, and competes, accordingly, in the examination of adjuncts (*agregés*). The consequences of the low esteem in which the grammar studies are held have been much deplored by the present director of the school,\* and a reform in regard to them has been attempted, with partial success.

The courses are conducted by teachers called masters of conferences, who seldom lecture, but question the pupils upon the lessons which have been appointed for them to learn, give explanations, and are present while they interrogate each other, as a kind of practice in the art of teaching. In some cases, the students themselves act as masters of conferences.

The course of letters of the *first year* comprised, in 1836-7,†

1. Greek language and literature, three lessons per week. 2. Latin and French literature, three lessons. 3. Ancient history and antiquities, three lessons. 4. A course of philosophy higher than that of the colleges, three lessons. 5. General physics, one lesson. Chemistry, one lesson, the courses being introduced chiefly to keep up the knowledge of these subjects. 6. German and English language, each one lesson.

The conferences, or lessons on general physics, chemistry, and the modern languages, are by pupils who give instruction and explanations to their comrades.

At the end of the first year there are examinations, according to the result of which the student passes to the courses of the second year, or, in the case before stated, to those of the third year, or leaves the school. These examinations are conducted by inspectors-general of the university, named for the purpose by the minister. Pupils who have passed, may present themselves at the university as candidates for the degree of licentiate of letters.

The *second year's* course of letters does not necessarily include any scientific studies.

The courses of language and philosophy go into the history of these subjects. They consist of—1. Lectures on the history of Greek literature, three lessons per week. 2. On the history of Roman literature, two lessons. 3. On the history of French literature, one lesson. 4. English language, one lesson. 5. On the history of philosophy, two lessons. 6. Continuation of the historical course, two lessons. The recitations are accompanied by suitable written exercises.

\* Rapport sur les travaux de l'école normale pendant l'année, 1835-6. Par M. Cousin.

† The distribution of subjects is taken from a manuscript kindly furnished to me by the director of studies, M. Viguer; it does not agree precisely with the plan marked out in the regulations.

At the end of the year the pupils are examined. Those who have not already obtained the degree of licentiate of letters are now required to do so, or to leave the school.

The examinations for this degree consist of compositions in French and Latin prose, on different days. Latin verses and Greek themes. Explanations of selected passages from the second book of Herodotus, the speech of Pericles in Thucydides, the Gorgias of Plato, the speech of Demosthenes against Leptines, the choruses of *Œdipus at Colonus*, the *Hecuba* of Euripides, the combat of Hercules and Amycus in Theocritus, the Hymns of Synesius, Cicero de Oratore and de legibus, the German of Tacitus, the Treatise of Seneca de beneficiis, the last two books of Quintilian's Rhetoric, the fifth book of Lucretius de natura rerum, the first book of Horace's Epistles, the second book of Horace's Odes, the *Tras* of Seneca.

These books are liable to be changed, from time to time, on notice being given. The candidate is expected to answer the questions on philosophy, literature, history, and philology, to which the reading of the author may give rise.

In the *third year* of letters, the courses are special, the divisions corresponding with the courses of the royal colleges, and consisting of grammar, humanities, and rhetoric, history, and philosophy. Each pupil takes his place in one or other of these divisions, and is not required to follow the courses of the others.

The lectures and recitations constituting the entire course of letters of the third year were, during the second half year of 1836-7—1. Latin language and grammar, three lessons. 2. Greek language, two lectures and one lesson. 3. Latin literature, two lectures and one lesson. 4. Greek literature, two lectures and one lesson. 5. Latin eloquence, two lectures. 6. Latin poetry, two lectures. 7. French literature, one lesson. 8. History of the philosophy of the ancients, two lectures. 9. Ancient geography, two lectures. 10. Philosophy, one lesson. The lectures alluded to are those attended by the pupils at the Sorbonne.

The following were the courses of the different years in the section of science during the same term, the lectures being those of the faculty of sciences of the university.

*First year.* 1. Astronomy, two lessons per week. 2. Descriptive Geometry, two lessons. 3. Chemistry, two lectures, one lesson, and four hours of manipulation. 4. Botany, one lesson. 5. Philosophy, two lessons. 6. German language, one lesson. 7. Drawing, one lesson, during the week, and one on Sunday.

*Second year.* 1. Physics, two lectures, two lessons, and one hour of manipulation. 2. Chemistry, two lectures. 3. Botany, one lesson. 4. Vegetable physiology, two lectures. 5. Calculus of probabilities, two lectures. 6. Differential and integral calculus, two lectures and two lessons. 7. Drawing, one lesson during the week, and one on Sunday.

*Third year.* 1. Mechanics, four lectures and two lessons. 2. Chemical analysis, two lectures and one hour of manipulation. 3. Chemistry, one lecture. 4. Natural history, two lessons. 5. Geology, one lesson. 6. Botany, one lesson. 7. Drawing, one lesson. On Sunday, the pupils make botanical and geological excursions into the environs.

The pupils undergo similar examinations to those of the section of letters, and before presenting themselves as candidates for the place of adjunct, they must have taken at least the degree of licentiate of sciences. They are however, specially relieved from the necessity of matriculating in those courses at the university which they attend in the school, and which otherwise would be necessary in order to obtain the degree of licentiate. These are, for the mathematical sciences, the differential and integral calculus and mechanics; for the physical sciences, physics and chemistry; and for the natural sciences, geology, botany, &c. The examination for the degree of licentiate of mathematical science may be made at the end of the second year, by pupils of this section of the normal school, and that for licentiate of physical science at the close of the third year.

The programmes of the several lessons\* in both sections are prepared by the masters, and submitted to the council of public instruction every year before the beginning of the course.

Besides these lectures and recitations, the pupils are required to attend such other lectures at the faculty of letters or of sciences of the university, or any other public institution, as may be designated to them. At the termination of the third year's course, in the month of July, they are examined in the school, and present themselves as competitors for the places of adjuncts, according to the special studies which they have pursued.

The courses of the school are arranged in reference to the competition for these places, an account of the examinations for which has already been given in the general description of secondary instruction in France. In this competition they are brought in contact with the best talent which has chosen a different road to preferment from that offered by the normal school. Success in this trial is, of course, not always a fair criterion of the state of the school, but certainly offers, on the average, an idea of the merits of its different departments, and is so used in directing their improvement. It may be of interest, therefore, to give the results of one of these competitions, namely, that for 1836. The judges of the competition for the places of adjuncts in philosophy report ten candidates for the six places; of these, five of the successful ones were from the normal school, but the first was from another institution. For six vacancies in the higher classes of letters there were thirty candidates examined, and of these, two of the successful ones, including the first upon the list, were pupils of the school. For adjuncts in the sciences there were eight places and nineteen candidates, the school furnishing six of the successful competitors, and among them the first on the list. In history and geography there were eight candidates for five places; the institutions from which they came are, however, not stated. In grammar, there were forty-one candidates for eight places; of the successful competitors the school sent five, and among them the first on the list.

The keen nature of this competition, while it excites the pupils of the school to great exertion, produces a most deleterious effect upon the health of the more feeble. Indeed, their general appearance, when compared with those of other young men of the same age, is far from favorable. It is part of a system which is considered adapted to the national character, but which is certainly by no means a necessity for men in general, since the teachers of the German gymnasia are prepared without its severe pressure.

The collections subsidiary to the instruction are—1st. A library of works relating to education and to the courses of study, which is open for two hours every day, and from which the students may receive books. This library is under the charge of the sub-director of studies. The students are, besides, furnished with the books which they use in their classes at the expense of the school, and which, unless injured, are returned by them after use. 2d. A small collection of physical apparatus. 3d. A collection of chemical apparatus connected with a laboratory, for practice in manipulation. The courses of manipulation are not, however, carried out to their due extent, and the study-rooms are common to many individuals. The pupils are divided into two sections for study, each of which is in charge of one of the superintending masters.

*Discipline.*—Though there are minute regulations for discipline, the age of the pupils and the character of their pursuits and expectations render the exercise of severity but little necessary. At the time of my visit to the school, in 1837, the youngest pupil was seventeen years of age, and there were but four of between eighteen and nineteen connected with it.

Much difference of opinion exists as to whether the frequent permissions to individuals to leave the premises should not be replaced by excursions made by the whole of the pupils, under the supervision of an officer. At

\* A series of programmes is given in full in M. Cousin's work, before referred to.



present, Sunday is a day of general leave of absence, and on Thursday afternoon individual permissions are freely granted by the director of studies.

This institution occupies the same rank with those attached to some of the Prussian universities, and intended to prepare masters for the gymnasias. It has an advantage over them in the spirit produced by the greater numbers of its pupils, and by the closer connection with the school, which results from their studying and residing within its walls. It is, in turn, inferior to the seminaries for secondary teachers at Berlin, in the absence of arrangements for practical teaching, and in even a more important respect, namely, the want of that religious motive of action which forms the characteristic of the Prussian system. The deficiencies of this great school, in regard to both religious and practical education, struck me, I must confess, very forcibly.\*

\* In the general tenor of the foregoing remarks, I have the sanction of M. Cousin, in the preface to his account of the Normal School, already referred to.

## VIII PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWITZERLAND.

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THE following general outline of the educational institutions of Switzerland, will be found to contain not only an interesting notice of the Normal Schools of that country, but also valuable hints respecting the compulsory attendance of children at school, and school inspection, as well as the relations of education to pauperism. It is abridged from a recent work by Joseph Kay, published by J. Hatchard and Son, London, 1846, entitled "*The Education of the poor in England and Europe.*"

"Perhaps of all countries Switzerland offers the most instructive lesson to any one investigating educational systems and institutions. It is divided into twenty-two independent cantons, each of which manages its own internal policy after its own peculiar views; so that the educational systems of the several cantons differ very materially, whilst the federal government which unites all, brings all into intimate connection one with another, and facilitates improvement, as the institutions which are found to work best are gradually adopted by all the different governments. Each canton being acquainted with the systems pursued by the others, the traveler is enabled, not only to make his own observations on the various results, but is benefited also by the conversation of men accustomed to compare what is being done by their own government with what is being done by others, and to inquire into the means of perfecting their educational systems.

But the advantage to be derived from an investigation of the various efforts made by the different cantons, is still further increased by the fact of their great difference in religious belief. Thus, the population of the canton of Vaud, for example, is decidedly Presbyterian,—that of Lucerne is almost exclusively Roman Catholic, whilst those of Argovia and Berne are partly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic. Not only, therefore, does the traveler enjoy the advantage of studying the educational systems of countries professing different religious creeds, but the still greater one of witnessing the highly satisfactory solution of the various difficulties arising from differences of religious belief existing under the same government.

The great development of primary education in Switzerland, dates from 1832 or 1833, immediately after the overthrow of the old aristocratic oligarchies. No sooner did the cantonal governments become thoroughly popular, than the education of the people was commenced on a grand and liberal scale, and from that time to this, each year has witnessed a still further progress, until the educational operations of the several governments have become by far their most weighty and important duties.

Throughout all the cantons, with the exception of Geneva, Valais, and

three small mountainous cantons on the Lake of Lucerne, where the population is too scanty and too scattered to allow of the erection of many schools, education is compulsory; that is, all parents are required by law to send their children to school from the age of six to the age of fourteen, and, in several cantons, to the age of sixteen. The schoolmasters in the several communes are furnished with lists of all the children in their districts, which are called over every morning on the assembling of school; the absentees are noted, and also the reasons, if any, for their absence; these lists are regularly examined by the inspectors, who fine the parents of the absentees for each day of absence.

In some of the manufacturing districts, the children are permitted to leave school and enter the mills at the age of eleven, if they have then obtained from the inspectors a certificate of being able to read and write; but they are obliged to attend a certain number of periodical lessons afterward, until they attain the age of fourteen or fifteen. In the canton of Argovia, however, which is one of the manufacturing districts of Switzerland, the children are not allowed to enter the mills until they attain the age of thirteen, and I was assured by several of the manufacturers of this canton, that they did not suffer any inconvenience from this regulation, although it had been warmly opposed at first by the commercial men.

It ought to be remembered, that these laws are enforced under the most democratic forms of government.

The people themselves require attendance at the schools, so conscious are they of the necessity of education to the encouragement of temperance, prudence, and order.

In the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Argovia, Zurich, Thurgovia, Lucerne, and Schaffhouse, where this law is put into force most stringently, it may be said with truth, that all the children between the ages of seven and fifteen are receiving a sound and religious education. This is a most charming result, and one which is destined to rapidly advance Switzerland, within the next eighty years, in the course of a high Christian civilization. One is astonished and delighted, in walking through the towns of the cantons I have mentioned, to miss those heart-rending scenes to be met with in every English town; I mean the crowds of filthy, half-clothed children, who may be seen in the back streets of any of our towns, groveling in the disgusting filth of the undrained pavements, listening to the lascivious songs of the tramping singers, witnessing scenes calculated to demoralize adults, and certain to leave their impress on the susceptible minds of the young, quarreling, swearing, fighting, and in every way emulating the immorality of those who bred them. There is scarcely a town in England and Wales whose poorer streets, from eight in the morning until ten at night, are not full of these harrowing and disgusting scenes, which thus continually show us the real fountain-head of our demoralized pauperism. In Switzerland nothing of the kind is to be seen. The children are as regularly engaged in school, as their parents are in their daily occupations, and henceforward, instead of the towns continuing to be, as in England, and as they have hitherto been in Switzerland, the hot-beds and nurseries of irreligion, immorality, and sedition, they will only afford still more favorable opportunities, than the country, of advancing the religious, moral, and social interests of the children of the poor. How any one can wonder at the degraded condition of our poor, after having walked through the back streets of any of our towns, is a thing I never could understand. For even where there are any schools in the town, there are scarcely ever any playgrounds annexed to them; so that in the hours of recreation the poor little children are turned out into the streets, to far more than forget all the moral and religious counsel given in the school. It is strange that we do not understand how invaluable

the refuge is, which a school and playground afford to the children of the poor, however indifferent the education given in the school.

This small country, beautified but impoverished by its Alpine ranges, containing a population\* less than that of Middlesex, and less than one-half its capital, supports and carries on an educational system greater than that which our government maintains for the whole of England and Wales! Knowing that it is hopeless to attempt to raise the character of the education of a country without first raising the character and position of the schoolmaster, Switzerland has established, and at the present moment supports, thirteen Normal schools for the instruction of the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, whilst England and Wales rest satisfied with six! Eleven of these schools are permanent, and are held during the whole of the year; the remaining two sit only for about three months yearly, for the purpose of examining monitors recommended by the masters of the primary schools, and desirous of obtaining diplomas to enable them to act as schoolmasters. In the majority of these schools the members of the different religious sects are received with a willingness and with a Christian charity, which puts to shame our religious intolerance. Nor does this liberality proceed from any carelessness about the religious education of the people, for no master can obtain, from his canton's government, a diploma, to enable him to officiate as schoolmaster, without having first obtained from a clergyman of his own church a certificate of moral character and of competency to conduct the religious education in the school for which he is destined; but it proceeds rather from a recognition of this great truth, that the cause of religion must be deeply injured by neglecting the secular education of the people, and from a Christian resolution in all parties to concede somewhat, for the sake of insuring what must be the foundation of all social improvement, the advancement of the intelligence and morality of the people. M. Gauthey, a Presbyterian clergyman, and director of the Normal schools at Lausanne, M. Vehrli, director of the Normal school near Constance, the professors of the Normal school in Argovia, M. Schneider von Langnau, minister of public instruction in the canton of Berne, and M. Fellenberg, of Hofwyl, all assured me that they did not find the least inconvenience resulting from the instruction of different sects in the same schools. Those who differ in faith from the master of the school are allowed to absent themselves from the doctrinal lessons given in the school, and are required to attend one of their own clergy for the purpose of receiving from him their doctrinal instruction.

Even in Fribourg, a canton governed by Catholic priests, Protestants may be found mingled with the Catholics in the schools, and are allowed to absent themselves during the hours of religious lessons; and, in Argovia, a canton which has lately so distinguished itself by its opposition to the Jesuits of Lucerne, I found that several of the professors in the Normal school were Catholics, and that the utmost tolerance was manifested to all the Catholics attending the cantonal schools.

The Swiss governments perceived, that if the powerful sects in the several cantons were to refuse education to the Dissenters, only one part of the population would be educated. They perceived also, that secular education was necessary to the progress of religious education, and that they could secure neither without liberality; and therefore they resolved that all the children should be required to attend school, and that all the schools should be opened to the whole population.

In the canton of Neuchâtel, they have no Normal school, but they choose their masters from the monitors of the primary schools, who are most carefully educated and trained by the masters of the primary schools

\* In 1846 the population of Switzerland was about 2,400,000.

for their future important situations. Notwithstanding their greatest exertions, however, to choose persons qualified for this most important post, I was assured by those interested in the progress of education in that canton, that they found the present system totally inadequate to the production of efficient masters, and that they felt that they must follow the example of the other cantons, and establish a permanent Normal school. In the cantons of Fribourg and Schaffhouse the Normal schools sit only during three months of the year, during which time they give lectures to those desiring to be schoolmasters, and examine the candidates before granting the diplomas. But so totally inefficient have they found this system, that Fribourg is about to establish a Normal school during the present year, and Schaffhouse has only been prevented from doing so by the want of sufficient funds.

I was assured by the priests in the one canton, and by the Protestant clergy in the other, that they were fully convinced that no efforts on their part could insure good masters, unless they were aided by a sufficiently long religious, intellectual, and domestic training, under the eye of experienced and trustworthy professors.

Four of the Normal schools of Switzerland contain each from eighty-five to one hundred pupil-teachers; the rest average from forty to eighty.

It may seem extraordinary to some that so small a country as Switzerland should require so many schools for teachers, but the explanation is very simple. Switzerland is a poor country, and although it gives the schoolmaster a very honorable station in society, and regards him as next in dignity to the priests and clergy, it is not able to pay him very well, so that in many cases there is no other inducement to a schoolmaster to remain long at his post, than the interest he feels in his profession. From this cause there is always a constant desertion from the ranks going on in some parts, and a consequent necessity for the preparation of a sufficient number to fill the vacant posts. If the masters were paid better, Switzerland would be able to dispense with two or three of its Normal schools.

I should like to enter upon a description of the different Normal schools of Switzerland, were not that rather beside the purpose of this report; but I cannot refrain from recording the unanimous opinion of the Swiss educators on two points connected with these schools. These are, the necessity of manual labor in connection with the instruction given in the schools, and the time which all are agreed upon as necessary to the perfecting of a schoolmaster's education. On the latter point, all with whom I conversed assured me, that their experience had taught them that three years were absolutely necessary for the education of a master; that wherever less time had been tried, it had always been found insufficient; and that in order that even three years should suffice, it was necessary that the young man entering the Normal school should have completed his education in the primary schools.

With respect to the necessity of manual labor in a Normal school, opinions were hardly less unanimous. To the Bernese Normal schools, as well as to that at Kruitlingen, conducted by Vehrli, the successor of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg, and to the Normal schools of Lucerne and Solleure, lands have been annexed, which are farmed and cultivated by the pupil-teachers. They are sufficiently extensive, in five of these schools, to employ all the young men in the Normal school at least two hours per diem in their cultivation. On these lands all the pupil-teachers, accompanied by their professors, and clothed in coarse farmers' frocks, with thick wooden sandals, may be seen toiling most industriously about the middle of the day, cultivating all the vegetables for the use of the household, as well as some for the neighboring markets, and could any one be taken among them at that period of the day, he would imagine he saw before him a set

of peasants at their daily labor, instead of the young aspirants to the much respected profession of schoolmaster.

Besides this labor in the fields, the young men are also required to clean their apartments, to take charge of their own chambers, prepare their own meals, besides keeping all the premises in good repair. Thus the life of the pupil-teacher in Switzerland, during the time he remains at school, is one of the most laborious nature. He is never allowed to lose sight of the manner of life of the class from which he was selected, and with which he is afterward required to associate. He is never allowed to forget that he is a peasant, so that he may not afterward feel any disgust in mingling with peasants. In this manner, they train their teachers in habits of thought and life admirably suited to the laborious character of the profession for which they are destined, and to the humble class who will be their companions in after life. The higher the instruction that is given to a pupil-teacher, the more difficult and the more important is it to cherish his sympathies for the humble and often degraded class among whom he will be called to live and exercise his important duties.

In fact, as all the Swiss educators said, the great difficulty in educating a teacher of the poor is to avoid, in advancing his intelligence and elevating his religious and moral character, raising his tastes and feelings so much above the class from which he has been selected, and with which he is called upon afterward to associate, as teacher, adviser, and friend, as to render him disgusted with his humble companions, and with the toilsome duties of his profession. In educating the teachers, therefore, far above the peasant class whom they are intended to instruct, the Swiss cantons, which I have mentioned, are very careful to continually habituate them to the simplicity and laborious character of the peasant's life, so that, when they leave the Normal schools, they find that they have changed from a situation of humble toil to one of comparative ease. They do not therefore become dissatisfied afterward with their laborious employments, but are accustomed even from their childhood to combine a high development of the intellect and a great elevation of the character with the simplicity and drudgery of a peasant's occupations.

Thus the Swiss schoolmasters live in their villages as the coadjutors of the clergy, associating with the laborers in their homes and at their firesides, whilst at the same time they exhibit to them the highly beneficial and instructive example of Christian-minded, learned and gentle peasants, living proofs of the benefits to be derived from possessing a properly educated mind.

I cannot deny myself the pleasure of giving Vehrli's opinion on this subject. He said, 'Your object in educating a schoolmaster ought to be, to prepare a teacher of the people, who, whilst he is considerably elevated in mental acquirements above those among whom he will be obliged to mingle, shall thoroughly sympathize with them by having been himself accustomed to hard manual labor. If you take pupil-teachers into your Normal schools, and content yourselves with merely cultivating their mental powers, you will find that, however carefully you tend their religious instruction, you have educated men who will soon, despite themselves, feel a disgust for the population with whom they must associate, and for the laborious duties which they will have to perform; but if during the whole of their residence at the Normal school, you accustom them to hard and humble labor, when they leave, they will find themselves in higher and easier situations than when they were at school, they will sympathize with their poor associates, and feel contented and satisfied with their position.'

In Argovia they have so strongly felt the truth of the above remarks, that they have resolved to adopt M. Vehrli's suggestions, and to annex



lands to their Normal school; and in the canton of Vaud, where no labor is required from the pupil-teacher, I was assured that they had constant reason to complain of the dissatisfaction expressed by the teachers for their profession after leaving the Normal school. Nor is it only by means of agricultural labor that Vehrli endeavors to prepare his pupils for the honorable but arduous duties of their future lives. Nearly all the domestic concerns of his household are conducted by the pupil-teachers, and all assistance that is not absolutely necessary is dispensed with. Vehrli assured me that by these means the expenses of maintaining his Normal school were greatly diminished, as they sent to market all the surplus of their agricultural produce, and employed the proceeds in defraying the ordinary expenditure of the school.

But whilst the Swiss cantons are thus careful to prepare the pupil-teachers for the practical duties of their lives, they do not neglect their intellectual instruction; as they are fully convinced that the instruction given in a village school by an ignorant man must not only be very meager in kind, but very unattractive in character. In order to attain a certain standard of instruction in a village school, the education of the master should be very much elevated above it; and in order to make the poor prize the village school, it is necessary that they should have a very high opinion of the character and learning of the teacher.

The education given by these masters in the parochial schools includes, 1. Religious instruction. 2. Reading. 3. Writing. 4. Linear drawing. 5. Orthography and grammar. 6. Arithmetic and book-keeping. 7. Singing. 8. The elements of geography, and particularly of the geography of Switzerland. 9. The history of Switzerland. 10. The elements of natural philosophy, with its practical applications. 11. Exercises in composition. 12. Instruction in the rights and duties of a citizen.

In the Catholic cantons, however, the instruction is generally confined to religious lessons, reading, writing, and arithmetic.

No teacher is allowed to undertake the charge of a school, until he has obtained from the council of his canton, whose duty it is to examine candidates, a diploma stating his capability of directing the education of a school. This diploma is only granted after a very severe examination, which the candidate must pass before he can become a schoolmaster. Besides this, he must have obtained a certificate of character from the director of the Normal school in which he was educated, and in many cases another from a clergyman of his own sect, stating his capability of conducting the religious education of a school. This latter point is always strictly inquired into, either by the council of inspection, which examines the candidates, or by a clergyman of the sect of which the candidate is a member. The character and abilities of the teachers are not considered in Switzerland as matters of small concern, but on the contrary, every precaution is taken to guard against the possibility of a man of low character or poor education obtaining such a post. It is happily understood in the Swiss cantons, that such a schoolmaster is much worse than none at all. The influence of such an one on the young is demoralizing in the extreme, and does infinite mischief, by creating in the minds of the children associations connecting the name of school with unhappy thoughts, and thus often actually engendering a spirit of hostility, not only against education, but also against the holy precepts which were professedly taught at school.

I consider the very backward state of education in some of these cantons, compared to the great progress it has made in others, as a satisfactory proof of the necessity of adopting a centralization system in preference to one leaving the direction of education to provincial governments. I know there are many in our own country who blindly cry out against centralization, not reflecting that the central government, as being the

richest and most powerful body, can most easily collect sufficient statistics on the comparative merits of different systems, and on the comparative results of different ways of teaching and managing a school, and that it affords a much greater security to the country than the best provincial governments can do,—that what is found to work best shall be speedily introduced throughout the country, and that education shall be universally spread, instead of being greatly developed in one part of the country, and altogether neglected in another.

Each canton in Switzerland is divided into a certain number of communes or parishes, and each of these communes is required by law to furnish sufficient school-room for the education of its children, and to provide a certain salary, the minimum of which is fixed by the cantonal government, and a house for each master it receives from the Normal school of the canton. These communal schools are, in the majority of cases, conducted by masters chosen from the most numerous religious sect in the commune, unless there are sufficient numbers of the different religious bodies to require more than one school, when one school is conducted by a master belonging to one sect, and the other by a master chosen from a different sect. The children of those parents, who differ in religion from the master of the school, are permitted to absent themselves from the doctrinal lessons, and are required to obtain instruction, in the religious doctrines of their own creed, from clergy of their own persuasion.

The inspection of the cantonal schools is conducted in the most satisfactory manner. Each canton has a board of inspectors, or council-general of instruction, which is presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, and whose duty it is, to visit all the schools of the canton, once at least in the year, and to report on them individually to the government of the canton, as to the state of the schools themselves, as to the progress of the pupils, as to the character of the instruction given by the master, and as to the attendance of the children of the commune.

But besides the cantonal board of inspectors, there is also in each commune a board of inspectors, who are elected annually from among the clergy and educated men of the commune, and who visit the communal schools at least once each year, and report to the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, on the individual progress of the children in the communal schools. The head inspector of the canton of Solleure showed me samples of the handwriting, composition, accounts, &c., of all the children in the canton. By these means each schoolmaster is encouraged in his exertions, as he feels that the eyes of his canton are upon him, and that he is regarded as a most important public functionary, to whom is committed a great and momentous trust, for the proper discharge of which it is but right his canton should receive constant assurance.

By these means the different communes or parishes are immediately interested in the progress of their schools, whilst the government is insured against the possibility of a school being wholly neglected, as every school is sure of receiving one or two visits from the government inspectors, even if the parochial authorities should wholly neglect them, or should not pay them sufficient attention.

This is the true theory of a system of inspection. There ought always to be a system of local inspection, because local authorities are able, when active, to discover better than any stranger can possibly do, the peculiar wants and requirements of their localities, as well as the real character of their teachers, and because a system of local inspection provides a continual check upon the schoolmaster; but as persons, who have other and pressing duties upon their hands, and who are deeply engaged in business or in agricultural pursuits, are very likely to neglect at times, and often altogether, the important duty of attending to the schools of their neighborhood, and as schools, which receive no surveillance from persons

qualified to judge of their particular merits or demerits, are always sure to degenerate, and are liable to become seriously demoralized; and as, moreover, it is deeply important that every government, for the sake of social order and also for the sake of the happiness and morality of its subjects, should have every security that the people are really educated and not demoralized by a sinful sham of education, it is necessary that in every well-governed state, where the government takes any interest in the improvement of the people, there should be a central inspection of all the schools of the country, which should be supported and directed by the government. If government has not the power of examining every school, it can have no security that the children are not being absolutely demoralized, and that the seeds of future rebellion and sedition are not being sown in the village schools. In many of the neglected schools of England and Wales at the present day, this is actually the case, and just because the schoolmasters, in many instances, are never visited and watched by any person capable of judging of the moral condition of their schools.

The development of the people's education in Switzerland and France is of far too recent a date to allow me to speak of its results. It is not in thirteen years that the habits, opinions, taste, and manners of a people can be changed. A change in a nation's character is not wrought in one generation; so that nothing can be more unfair than the language held by many persons on this subject. If any thing is said of French and Swiss education, the answer is, 'Look at its results.' 'The people of these two countries are the most disaffected and turbulent in Europe.' I repeat, that nothing can be more unfair than this reasoning. The real development of education dates in both countries from 1833, so that but few of the age of thirty in either country can have reaped any advantage from it, and of those below thirty, many can not have been able to attend any good school for more than two or three years, and many others not at all, whilst of those young men, who have enjoyed the advantages of attending a school directed by an able and efficient master, many must have received as much harm from the evil influence of demoralizing homes, as they have reaped benefit from the ennobling effect of the lessons and examples given them by a Christian and noble-minded schoolmaster. It is only when the corrupting influences of the old, ignorant, and demoralized generations have passed away, when the parents themselves have begun to estimate the advantages to be reaped from education, when the lessons of the teachers are backed by the lessons and examples of the parents, that the effects of education will begin to be apparent. This requires more than one generation, and much more than thirteen years; and it is this very slowness in the working of an educational system, however perfect, which renders me the more anxious that we should speedily prepare for the coming future.

Such is a short outline of the general character of the educational systems of Switzerland.

At the present time it may be truly said, that in nearly the whole of Switzerland, every boy and girl below the age of seventeen years, can read and write. The education of the girls is perhaps in a more satisfactory condition in the Catholic cantons than in the Protestant. It is confided to the special care of the nuns, and I can bear testimony to the gentle, patient, and religious spirit in which these excellent women affectionately tend the progress of the young girls. The self-denying life which the Catholic nuns lead, and the excellent education they receive in the nunneries, admirably suit them for the important duties confided to their charge in these cantons. After examining the schools conducted by some of the sisters in Fribourg, the abbess of the nunnery, to which the nuns who had the direction of the female schools belonged, allowed me, in com-

pany with a very intelligent priest, with whom I had been spending some days, to visit the nunnery. We went over it in company with one of the sisters. When I entered, I found myself in the presence of about twenty of the nuns, who, under the direction of a very venerable old abbess of about eighty years of age, were seated in the entrance-hall, engaged in making clothes for the poor.

The apartments of the sisters were of the plainest possible description. They were in beautiful order, and perfectly clean; but furnished very meagerly, and literally destitute of every thing that was not absolutely necessary. The sisters have no servants and no assistants. They prepare their own food, clean their own chambers, take charge by turns of the dining-room, hall, and room of the abbess, and, in fact, perform by turns all the humblest duties of domestic servants. They, at the same time, give a very excellent education to the young persons destined to take the veil, comprising reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, grammar, and singing. The novitiates are, therefore, in every way admirably prepared for the duties of instruction, which they undertake after having taken the veil, whilst the humble life to which they are accustomed during the years of their novitiate, and during the rest of their lives, in turn with the other sisters, makes them admirably well qualified for intercourse with the poor, and renders them patient, gentle, and persevering in their efforts in the schools. They certainly are living examples of the class of teachers a good training is capable of producing.

The condition of the peasantry in the Protestant cantons of Berne, Argovia, Vaud, Thurgovia, Neuchatel, Geneva, Basle, and Schaffhouse, and in the Catholic cantons of Solleure and Lucerne, is a very happy one. No beggars are to be seen in these cantons, and what is still more surprising, no signs of pauperism. Their dress, though homely, is always good, free from patches, and clean. Their cottages, though, from the smoked appearance of the timber, at first sight giving an idea of great poverty, are nevertheless very commodious, substantially built, and comfortably furnished, and what is more, they are their own. They are generally surrounded by their little gardens, and almost always stand on plots of land which belong to and are cultivated by the tenants, and no one, who has seen the garden-like appearance of the cantons of Berne, Vaud, Solleure, Argovia, Thurgovia, and Zurich, will doubt again the high state of cultivation which may be attained by small farmers, proprietors of their own farms. The Swiss proprietor, himself a farmer, is interested in the state of his little property, and he is not a man to reject the aid of science, or to shut his ears to advice, or his eyes to observation. Their small farmhouses are the pictures of neatness, and their little estates are tended with the care an Englishman bestows upon his flower-garden. By far the greater part of the population are themselves proprietors, and the lands are so subdivided, as to bring them within the reach of the poorest laborer. This acts as the happiest preventive check on early and improvident marriages, and as the strongest possible incentive to providence and self-denial. Owing to this cause, the earliest age at which a young man thinks of marrying in several cantons is twenty-five, as he spends the first part of his life, after he has begun to earn any wages, in laying by some little capital toward the purchase of a house and piece of land. When he can offer a certain share of the purchase-money, he pays it over to the vendor and enters into possession, clearing the rest of his debt by yearly payments. It is only after he has thus attained the great object of his wishes that he marries. Many even of the laborers in the towns own or rent their little properties outside. The happy effects of this system are manifest not only in the excellent check it affords to imprudently early marriages and in the happy stimulant to prudence and sobri-

ety, but also and more particularly in the interest it gives the country peasants in the maintenance of social order.

The Swiss have so clearly understood that the real cause of pauperism is want of prudence and foresight among the poor, that the people themselves, in three of the most democratic of the cantons, have not only resolved, that all children should be forced to attend school for a certain number of years, and that the descent of lands should be so arranged, as to insure a great subdivision and make the separate estates small and numerous; and have not only created, by these means, strong incentives to prudence among the poor, by elevating their tastes, by teaching them the great benefits to be derived from temporary self-denial, and by holding out to the saving and self-denying laborer the prospect of becoming a proprietor; but they have also enacted laws, which prohibit any man marrying, until he prove to the state that he is able to support his wife. It must be remembered, that these laws are put in force by the people themselves. So clearly is it understood in Switzerland that the true cause of pauperism in a well-governed state can only be ignorance, and improvidence resulting from ignorance, or some misfortune which could not have been foreseen; and that it is only the pauperism resulting from this latter cause for which a well-organized community ought to be called upon to provide."

## OUTLINE

OF THE

### NORMAL COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AT HOFWYL

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THE Rural or Agricultural School at Hofwyl was designed to be a seminary for teachers, as well as a school for those devoted to labor. Both Fellenberg and Vehrli deem it very important for all who are to be employed in the instruction of common schools to have a thorough acquaintance with the practical labor of a farm. As an additional provision for their support, and as an invigorating exercise, it will be desirable for them (as indeed it probably would be for all literary men) to continue these labors. But a practical acquaintance with the life and habits of a majority of their pupils is the only means of preparing them fully to enter into the views and feelings of those under their care, to understand their wants and their difficulties, and prepare them for their duties. It also furnishes many important illustrations and topics of remark. It enables them to give much valuable information of a practical kind in connection with the subjects of their studies, and much may be done in this way to extend agricultural improvements. It is also an additional means of securing the attachment of the teachers to those to whom it is desirable their labors should be devoted, and inducing them to continue in this employment. So much is this object appreciated in some of the seminaries for instructors in Germany, whose plan and location do not admit of a farming establishment, that a garden and a nursery of fruit-trees are annexed to the seminary, and regular instruction is given in connection with them.

The direct preparation of the teachers for their profession consists,—1. In a thorough study of the branches to be taught, which they acquire in common with the other pupils, and on the productive plan. 2. In a series of lessons designed especially for them, in which Vehrli directs them as to the method of communicating instruction. 3. In assuming alternately the place of teachers in this class, under the immediate inspection of Vehrli. 4. In acting alternately as instructor and monitor to the other pupils, and superintendents of their conduct, under the general direction of Vehrli. 5. In the daily advice and direction they receive from him in the discharge of these duties. 6. In witnessing his own methods of instruction, as he passes from class to class to observe their progress. 7. In the discussions connected with a meeting for familiar conversation. 8. Those who are qualified for a more extended course of study are permitted to attend the lessons of the professors in the Literary Institution; and some are employed in the instruction or superintendence of the younger pupils in that school. Indeed, Fellenberg has found that those who were trained in the



Agricultural Institution were among the most valuable and faithful educators he could obtain; and on this account he deems an establishment of this kind an important aid to one of a more scientific or literary character. It is with the aid of assistants thus trained that Vehrli has succeeded in rendering a school, often composed of the worst materials, a model of order, industry, and improvement, which has excited the admiration of all who have visited it.

The following is a sketch of the course of instruction pursued with the class of teachers which annually assembled, by invitation and at the expense of Fellenberg, at Hofwyl:

"The first object was to ascertain, by free conversation or examination, the intellectual condition of the teachers, and to arrange them in classes, and provide means of instruction adapted to their wants: they were connected in such a manner that the better informed might assist those who were less familiar with the subject, and that they might enjoy the advantages of mutual as well as general instruction.

The day was opened and closed with religious exercises, in which they were led particularly to consider the duties of their office. Eight hours were assigned to instruction; the evening was devoted to free conversation on the state of the schools and their wants, and the subjects presented in the day; and the teachers had the opportunity of asking general questions, or presenting topics for discussion. Daily lessons were given in language, arithmetic, natural history, and vocal music; three lessons weekly in religion, and the same number in geometry and drawing; and two in geography; and two in *anthropology*, or the description of the human body and mind. Two or three hours daily were specially devoted to repetitions, or the copying of notes. The mode of instruction was adapted to the topic: sometimes it consisted merely in the exhibition of the subject, or of the methods of instruction; but it was accompanied as often as possible by questions to the teachers, and by practical illustrations, either by forming a class among the teachers, or calling in the pupils of the Agricultural School. The object of this course was to give general views of some important topics; to improve and inform the minds of the teachers themselves; and especially to give them a complete view of the methods of teaching. We add an account of the principal courses:

*The Maternal Language, or Grammar.*—The course of instruction in the mother tongue occupied one hour daily of the course, as being the basis of instruction in all other branches. Clear and precise ideas of the meaning and connection of words, and of the proper mode of expressing our ideas, are not less indispensable to successful study than to the business of life. But the study of language was also presented as an efficient means of exciting and developing the powers of the mind; because it should always be connected with the observation of the things to be described, or reflection on the ideas to be expressed. In short, if properly taught, every step in this study is a practical exercise in logic. Instruction in the mother tongue ought to commence with exercises in speaking, the materials for which should be derived from the objects immediately surrounding the child, or most familiar to him; and are always connected with the exercise of the senses in distinguishing form, color, size, weight, sound, feeling, and taste. It was also urged that the speaking, writing, and reading of the native language should go on together, in alternate exercises, as a part of one course of instruction; and not divided, as they often are. A plan of instruction was described extending through the whole period allotted to school education. The subject was divided into portions corresponding to our division of etymology and syntax; the first

involving simply words and their variations, and the second their connection in sentences. The teachers were advised to present both in such a manner that the pupil could not escape with mere mechanical habits; that he should be compelled to exercise thought and judgment in regard to the meaning and variations of individual words and their modes of combination. The last was especially recommended as the best means of showing the meaning as well as the use of individual words: in short, the methods advised and adopted present the most striking contrast with the mechanical exercises and the parrot-like acquisitions of pupils in grammar in English and American schools.

The more important principles were dictated and written down by the teachers; and questions were asked and answered in illustration. Written exercises on the various points presented, were also prepared and corrected, as far as the time would allow.

*Religious Instruction.*—The course of instruction in religion embraced, 1. Biblical history of the Old and New Testament; 2. History of the Christian religion; 3. Principles and precepts of Christianity; 4. A brief exposition of the best manner of giving religious or catechetical instruction. The design of this course was two-fold:—

1. To give to the teacher himself clear views of the sacred truths and solemn duties of religion; to enlighten his mind; to strengthen him in the resolute, persevering performance of his duties; to enlarge and ennoble his feelings; and to implant in his heart an unchangeable, cheering hope, which should sustain him in the changes and trials incident to his laborious calling.

2. To render him an able teacher of religion, so far as it falls within the sphere of the common school; and to prepare him, by precept and example, to make his pupils acquainted with the truths of the Bible, and the duties it imposes, and to educate them as disciples of Christ.

Both these objects were kept in view, and each more or less attended to, according to the nature of the subject and the knowledge of the auditors.

*Biblical History.*—As the history of the Bible was already familiar to the audience, this subject was treated principally in reference to the method of teaching. After a general chronological review of the principal events of the history, and its connection with that of other nations, the experienced teacher of a common school to whom this part of the course was intrusted, examined the various methods of Biblical instruction adopted in the canton of Berne. He warned his hearers against many of those methods, some of which reduce this part of instruction to a mechanical exercise of memory, that destroys its spirit; while others neglect the great object, and employ it merely as a means of instruction in language. He recommended—1. That the teacher should relate each portion of the history in language as much biblical and child-like as possible, and call upon the children to repeat the narration.

2. That he should require them to select the principal and subordinate circumstances, and combine them in their regular order and connection.

3. That he should lead them to draw the conclusions and make the reflections which the history may suggest, under his direction and with his assistance; but that he should carefully guard against the error of attempting to derive too many lessons of a different nature from a single history, for this only enfeebles the influence of the great principle involved, and distracts the mind and the feelings with too great a variety of subjects. In order to illustrate more completely the methods proposed, a class of children from the Agricultural School was generally brought in, and exercised in the manner proposed.

*History of the Christian Religion.*—The great objects of this course were, to awaken a deeper and more general interest in the Christian reli-

gion, and to strengthen their faith in its irresistible power, by showing them how light and truth have ever gained the victory amidst all the oppression and persecution they have endured.

The progress of light was traced; the earnest and useless groping after truth described, which preceded the coming of the Saviour, and was only satisfied by his instructions. The political and civil condition of the world at the Christian era, and the influence which Christianity has had in changing or modifying it, by the mutual and undistinguishing benevolence it requires between individuals and nations, and the equal rights which it thus establishes, was made the subject of particular attention. But the attention of the pupils was principally directed to the internal condition of the Christian church in the first three centuries, while it remained comparatively pure: they were pointed to the influence of Christian feelings and a Christian life in the family, the community, and the state; to the invincible power of that faith, and that love to the Saviour and to one another, which triumphed over ridicule and suffering, and martyrdom itself in its most horrid forms. The errors in principle and practice of this early period were also exhibited, with their sad consequences; and the effects of the various extremes to which they led—of slavish formality or lawless licentiousness; of intolerance and of hypocrisy; of superstition and fanaticism; of ecclesiastical despotism, and of anarchy—were presented in such a light as to point out the dangers to which we are still exposed. The time did not allow the extension of the course to later periods of history.

*Principles and Precepts of Christianity.*—The religious instructor observes, that he endeavored to present this part of his subject in its biblical form, and to show his pupils the inexhaustible richness of Divine wisdom exhibited in the Scriptures, to which reason, when duly enlightened as to its proper sphere, will come as a pupil, and not as a teacher. This revelation, he remarked, made in the language of men, should be the rule by which the exhibitions of the Deity, in nature, and providence, and the mind of man, must be judged. On the other hand, he presented the leading doctrines contained in the formularies of the Swiss churches, but still as subordinate to the biblical exhibition of truth with which the teacher in Switzerland is chiefly concerned. The first subjects of instruction were the general nature of religion, the peculiar character of Christianity, and its adaptation to the nature of man, the admirable form in which it is presented, and the importance of taking the Savior as a model for the methods of religious instruction. The Scriptures were next examined as the sources of religious truth, and the principal contents of the various books described, with the leading evidences of its historical authority, of its inspiration, and of the credibility of the principles it contains. The leading doctrines maintained in the national church were then presented, each accompanied with the evidence and illustrations afforded by the Scriptures, and followed by an exhibition of the duties involved in it, or founded upon it. At the same time, illustrations were derived from nature and from the human heart; and directions were given as to the best mode of teaching these truths to the young.

*Methods of Religious Instruction.*—The method of giving religious instruction was also taken up in a special manner, at the conclusion of the course: the first object was to point out the manner and order in which the various principles and precepts of religion should be presented to the young in correspondence with the development of their faculties; and the importance of preparing their minds to receive the truths, by making them familiar with the language, and the objects of intellect and feeling in general, instead of calling upon them to pass at once from the observation and the language of the material world, to the elevated truths of religion expressed in terms entirely new, and which leave so many minds

in hopeless confusion, if not in absolute ignorance of their real nature. The distinction of essential and non-essential doctrines was adverted to, and general directions given as to the methods of narrating and examining.

*Anthropology, or the Study of Man.*—This course was intended to give a general idea of the nature of man, and especially of the construction of our bodies, with a view to illustrate at once their wonderful mechanism, and to direct to the proper mode of employing and treating their various organs. The teacher adopted as his leading principles, to exclude as much as possible all that has not practical importance, and to employ the most simple terms and illustrations which could be chosen. The first great division of the course was devoted to the structure of the human body: it was opened with a brief introduction to natural history, and a comparative view of vegetables and animals, and man, and of the several races of men. The elementary materials of the human frame were then described, and the great and wonderful changes they undergo in receiving the principle of life, and becoming a part of man.

The various systems of the human body, the bones, muscles, vessels, organs, and nerves were next described, and illustrated by a human skeleton and by preparations of animals: the offices of each part were described in connection with its form and situation; thus uniting anatomy and physiology. At the same time, reference was made to the mode of employing them; the common accidents to which they were liable, as dislocations, fractures, &c., and the mode of guarding against them. The second portion of the course was devoted to the subject of Hygiene, or Dietetics; the proper mode of employing and treating the various organs, in order to preserve health and strength. It was opened with some views of the nature and value of health, and the causes which most frequently undermine it. The first object of attention was the organs of reproduction, their important destination, their delicate nature, and the evil consequence of too early excitement or abuse on the rest of the system; with the indications of abuse, and the methods of restoration. The nervous system, in its connection with the subject, led to the consideration of spiritual life, and its connection with the body, through the medium of the nerves. The various passions and affections were particularly described, with their influence upon the health; and the rules of education derived from this topic. Sleeping and waking were then treated as phenomena of the nervous system; and the distinction to be observed between children and adults on this subject was pointed out. The importance of attending to the structure and use of the bed-room and the bed, and even the position in sleep, was also adverted to.

The organs of sense, especially the eye and the ear, were minutely described, with the diseases to which they are liable from improper use or neglect, or from causes injurious to the brain and nervous system in general. The importance of the skin and its functions, and of maintaining its cleanliness by frequent changes of clothing and bathing; the necessity and methods of useful exercise; the precautions which ought to be employed to secure the purity of the air, especially in schools, and to guard against diseases of the organs of respiration, were the subjects of particular instruction. The formation and uses of the blood, the influence of food, and the circumstances in its condition or preparation which render it injurious, the evil effects of alcoholic drinks, and the most obvious causes of injury to the digestive organs, or of interruption in their functions, were afterward discussed in a practical manner. The course was closed with simple directions as to the treatment of injuries produced by sudden accidents, falls, wounds, drowning, freezing, fits, &c., during the time which must elapse before medical aid can be procured, or when it is not within reach—a species of knowledge for want of which many a life has doubt-

less been lost, and which is peculiarly important to one who is entrusted with the care of a large number of young persons. Indeed, what more valuable gift could be made to a collection of American teachers than such a course of instruction; a course which every well-informed physician is capable of giving?

*Geography.*—The course of instruction in geography was designed to point out the best methods of teaching facts already familiar to the audience. Two principles were laid down as fundamental:—1. To commence with giving the pupil distinct ideas of hill, valley, plain, stream, and lake in his own circle, and the characteristics of his own neighborhood; and thus to become familiar with the elements, and to proceed from particular to general views. 2. That the geography of their native country should be made familiar to the pupils of the common school, before they are confused or attracted by the peculiarities and wonders of foreign countries. A course of instruction was described for the canton of Berne in conformity with these principles, and the necessary references given to the authorities from which the teacher should derive his information. As a part of the course, each teacher was required to write an account of the place of his residence; and was taught how he should direct his pupils in the observations and inquiries necessary for this purpose, and fitted to develop the habits of quick and accurate perception and patient research.

*History of Switzerland.*—It was assumed as a principle, that history should not be taught as a whole in common schools; because young minds are incapable of understanding the causes and connection of events which involve the ideas, and plans, and motives of warriors and statesmen. On the other hand it was deemed of great importance to present the *leading events* of history to the young, in order to impress the moral lessons which they furnish, and especially those which belong to their own country. To the teachers, however, it was considered necessary to give a complete view of the history of Switzerland, in order to enable them to select and explain better its individual portions. It was accordingly narrated, so far as the time would admit, in several great divisions: the primitive period, the Roman period, and the period of transition, introduced the Swiss confederation; the heroic or warlike period, the period of political decline, and the period of revolution, (since 1798,) embraced the history of the confederation. This view of the course will be sufficient to show the general principles on which the method of instruction in this subject is founded.

*Agriculture.*—A course of lectures on agriculture was given to the assembled teachers by Fellenberg himself. The audience were reminded of that wise Omnipotence which presides over the circle of human activity, and of the manner in which it operates incessantly to prepare man for his higher destination, by rendering all his efforts dependent on this parental guidance for their success; and by leading him through all the variety of events in the material world, to that higher moral existence for which we are made. The lecturer pointed out the wisdom of this arrangement, and the defects which would exist in our education, as men, without these external means. He stated that he had assumed it as a part of his task to illustrate, by the evidence of facts, in a rational system of agriculture, that man is called upon to become like God—in governing himself, and in controlling the material world, for the good of his fellow-men; and that he observed constantly more and more the powerful influence of well-conducted plans of agriculture exerted in counteracting the spirit of indolence and habits of idleness. The first subject illustrated, was the power which a knowledge of the great principles of agriculture confers over the operations of nature, by giving a suitable direction to the cares and labors of its possessor; and the wretched slavery of the ignorant to the mere changes of matter, and to those effects of the elements which

the Creator gives us the capacity in some measure to employ for our own benefit. He next considered the best mode of rendering agriculture a means of exciting mental activity in the children and parents of a village, and of forming their character. Many sources of poverty and suffering in Switzerland were pointed out, which arose from the neglect of this subject, and the intimate connection between the improvement of agriculture, and the increase of intelligence and comfort of those who are engaged in it, with the prosperity and the free institutions of the country. Various leading principles of agriculture were then taken up; such as the removal of all the obstacles to vegetation—stones, weeds, excessive water, &c.; the rational preparation and use of manure; the proper form and employment of the plough; and the succession of crops. The influence of these principles, and of the knowledge of the elements that compose the materials employed in cultivating the earth, on the products and the facility of labor, were clearly exhibited, and were illustrated by a reference to the improved fields and increased products of Hofwyl. In short, the great object of this course was, not to teach the science, but to give such general views as should lead the teachers to appreciate and inculcate its importance, to observe and reflect on the prevailing evils and their remedies, and to excite their pupils to observation, as a means of rendering their very labors a source of intellectual and moral improvement.

A brief course of instruction was also given by Fellenberg, on the *constitution of the canton, and the rights and duties of citizens*. It would, of course, be out of place to enter into the details of the Berne constitution; but we can not give a correct view of the spirit of this course of instruction without describing the peculiar manner in which he introduced it.

He observed that the merely material interest of civil and political life forms a foundation too sandy and unstable for the life of the family or the state. A constitution truly free, and fitted to promote the higher moral ends of our existence, can find no firmer basis, no more noble and appropriate means, no higher ends, than in the message of 'peace on earth, and good will to men,' which was brought by our Savior. No book of freedom can better satisfy its true friends than the Bible, with its evangelical complement, if its instructions and its objects are rightly understood. Since I have sought here the sources and objects of a constitution, I have felt a higher value than ever for the Scriptures. The constitution presents the good of all as the great object; and this is the end of the Divine government. It calls upon each citizen to live and die for others—the object of our Savior's instructions and example. The Creator makes no distinction in the birth and death of men; and the constitution only follows his example in giving equal rights to all. The Savior teaches us to regard our fellow-men as members of the same family; the constitution simply enforces and carries out this principle. It acknowledges that 'the welfare or misery of a state depends on the moral and intellectual cultivation of its citizens, and that their sound education is among its first duties, and thus admits the great principle of the Gospel in relation to the affairs of this world.' Such is the spirit which Fellenberg wishes to pervade every course of instruction."

The success of the Normal course of instruction at Hofwyl, in spite of the petty jealousy with which the patriotic and benevolent labors of its founder was followed by the government of Berne, led to the establishment of two Normal Schools in that canton, and of similar institutions in most of the cantons of Switzerland. Fellenberg was elected a member of the Legislative Assembly, on the adoption of the new constitution, in 1831. On his motion the following article was introduced into the fundamental law:



"The welfare or woe of every state depends on the moral worth of its citizens. Without the cultivation of the mind and heart, true freedom is inconceivable, and patriotism is an empty sound. We must labor for our moral elevation, for the highest possible cultivation of the powers we have received from the Creator, if we would partake of the happiness which a free constitution should afford. The zealous promotion of this object is recommended by the Constituent Assembly to all future legislators, as holding a higher place in importance than all other objects."

Although the teachers of the canton were prohibited by a vote of the Education Department of the canton from attending his Annual Normal Course, a society was formed in 1832, with the name of the "*Cantonal Teachers' Society of Berne*." The following account is given by Mr. Woodbridge, in 1834:

#### BERNE CANTONAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

"This society was formed by the teachers assembled for instruction at Hofwyl in the summer of 1832, and consisted of 154 members, with few exceptions, teachers of ordinary schools. Fellenberg was chosen president; and Vehrli, the excellent teacher of the farm pupils of Hofwyl, vice-president. Its constitution presents, as the great objects of the society, union and co-operation in promoting the education of the people, and elevating the character of the schools. The means proposed were, free communications between its members, consultations concerning the best modes of advancing the cause of schools and improving the condition of teachers, and direct efforts to excite the attention of the people to the defects of present plans and methods of organizing and instructing the common schools of the country.

Among the important topics in the school itself which are proposed by the Society of Berne, to be presented in the meetings of its auxiliary societies, the first named is a careful inquiry into the condition of the pupils of their schools, and the proper means for their moral improvement. For this purpose they urge that every effort be made to give the pupils *constant employment*, and to guard them against the temptations of idleness; to preserve a mild but firm course of discipline; and to promote *fraternal affection* among them. They urge, that every branch of instruction, from the highest to the lowest, be discussed at these meetings; and that there should be a steady effort among the teachers to *advance in knowledge and skill*. Would that the last object could be impressed upon the minds of the multitude of teachers in our country, who wrap themselves up in the consciousness of having attained the *ne plus ultra* of skill and knowledge, or lie down in listless apathy, after their daily task is performed, with no anxiety but to 'get through' the business of to-morrow as early as possible.

The second meeting of the Berne Society of Teachers was also held at Hofwyl. It was opened by an interesting address from the president, full of truth and energy, of which we can only give a few opening sentences:—

'Guardians of the spiritual life, the personal wealth, of the children of our people! we have assembled to ratify our bond. We have pledged ourselves that in our schools shall grow up a noble, well-taught generation of the people; true to the principles of the Gospel, devoted to God, and faithful to men; a people whose characters shall not be unworthy of the scenes of grandeur and beauty which the Creator has assigned as their native land!'

'In this great object we shall succeed only so far as we follow the Savior's example, and imbibe the fullness of his love to man, and trust in God, in forming the hearts of those who are committed to us, in extending the influence of the school to every household, and in warming the hearts

of parents as well as children. God will reward such labors, even if they are not rewarded on earth. The God who feeds the ravens and clothes the lilies, will never forsake the faithful guardians of *his* children.'

Among the evils suggested at this meeting of the society, as requiring a remedy, were some familiar to our own schools:—the want of faithful visitation, for which responsible and *paid* officers were considered the only remedy; neglect and difficulties in obtaining suitable teachers; imperfect school-books and means of instruction; the want of a periodical for teachers; the unhappy difficulties arising from the dependence of the teacher on the caprice or convenience of individuals for his scanty pay, and claims of parental dictation often founded upon it.

After the meeting was closed the band of music of the farm pupils of Hofwyl called the assembly to a repast prepared for 360 persons by the liberal founder of Hofwyl. It was opened by him with prayer, acknowledging the favor of God to their association, and entreating his blessing upon their future efforts. A scene of social enjoyment and familiar intercourse then followed, suited to cheer the hearts of these fellow-laborers in an arduous and too often thankless office. Occasional songs, of that elevated and heart-stirring character which we have formerly described, were sung by the farm pupils, and united in by the chorus of teachers. We translate one sentiment given by a teacher, as a specimen of those offered on this occasion:

*There is one means of making the happiness, and the delight, which we feel to-day, universal! There is one unfailing means to convert ruined families into families of joy—to dry up the sources of poverty and misery—and to stem the torrent of overwhelming vice—to secure our liberties, and those of our children, against all the power of treachery,—in short, to secure the purity and the happiness of the people. And this unfailing means is, CHRISTIAN RATIONAL EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE, and especially of the poor. To all, then, who understand this mighty cry, and put their hands to the holy work, LONG LIFE! HEALTH to all the friends and promoters of rational education of the people, and the poor—far and near! LONG LIFE TO THEM!*

Such animating sentiments were followed and impressed by some of the noble 'männenchören,' or hymns for male voices, which the Swiss music furnishes to cherish social, and benevolent, and patriotic, and devotional feeling, in place of the bacchanalian and amatory songs which so often disgrace our social meetings.

During the summer of 1833, a course of instruction was given to teachers, under the immediate direction of Fellenberg. It was closed by an examination, at which a considerable number of persons were present; and the Cantonal Society of Teachers held its third meeting immediately after. It was attended by 200 teachers and friends of education, or *school-men*, as they are all styled in simple German, many of whom were new members.

Would that we could witness such a movement in any considerable portion of our own country. Could we see some individual who had the faith to invite, and the influence necessary to collect such a body of teachers to listen to instruction, and consult for the good of their schools, for three months, in any State in the Union, we should expect more benefit to the cause of education than from any amount of school funds; for, important as they are, under proper regulation, they can never supply the place of an intelligent and well-trained body of teachers.

Since the above letter was written, State, County and Town Associations of Teachers have been formed; Teachers' Institutes have been held; and Normal courses of instruction and Normal Schools, established.

## NORMAL SCHOOL

### KUSSNACHT, IN THE CANTON OF ZURICH.

The Normal School at Kussnacht is about a league from the town of Zurich, and the buildings are prettily situated on the borders of the lake of the same name. This institution was re-organized in 1836, though the modifications made have been rather in the details than in the general principles. It now consists of a school for teachers, a preparatory school for this seminary, and three primary model schools. It is intended to supply teachers for the different grades of primary schools of the canton, and during a portion of the year lectures are also delivered in the seminary to the older teachers, who are assembled for the purpose in their vacations.

The superintendence and control of the Normal School is vested by the legislative council in the council of education, who appoint a committee of superintendence from their own body. This committee visits the school at least once a month, attends its examinations, and, in general, inspects its management. The executive power is delegated to a director, who has the immediate charge of the school, and arranges the plan of instruction, in subordination to the council of education. He examines the candidates for admission, inspects the classes of the seminary, and of the schools attached to it, and lectures in the school of repetition for the older teachers. He is also responsible for the discipline, and reports half-yearly the state of the institution to the council of education. He is moreover present at the meeting of the committee of superintendence. There are three other teachers, besides a variable number of assistants. These teachers in turn have charge of the pupils of the Normal School in and out of school-hours. There are conferences of all the teachers, at which the director presides. The manners of the people and the purpose of the seminary render the discipline of very trifling amount. The pupils of the Normal School reside in the village of Kussnacht, but spend the greater part of their time at the school, under the direction of its masters. All the time devoted to study, recitation or lecture, and regular exercise, is passed there.

To be admitted as a candidate for the Normal School, a youth must be sixteen years of age, and of suitable morals, intellectual, and physical qualities for the profession of a teacher. He must have spent two years in the higher division of primary instruction (called here secondary) in the model school, or some equivalent one, or have passed through the preparatory department of the Normal School, which gives a preference to the candidate, other qualifications being equal. The examination of candidates takes place once a year, and in presence of the committee of superintendence, or of a deputation from their body. The formal right of admitting to the school is, however, vested alone in the council of education. The subjects of examination are Bible history, speaking and reading, grammar, the elements of history, geography and natural philosophy, arithmetic and the elements of geometry, writing, drawing, and vocal music. The council of education fixes the number of pupils who may be admitted, and the most proficient of the candidates are selected. There are forty stipendiary places, ten of the value of one hundred and sixty Swiss francs, (forty-eight dollars,) and thirty of half that sum.

Natives who are admitted all receive their instruction gratis. If there is room in the school, foreigners may be received, paying twelve dollars per annum for their instruction. The number of pupils at the date of my visit, in the autumn of 1837, was one hundred and ten. The stipendiaries are bound to serve as teachers in the canton two years; a very moderate return for the education received.

There are two grades of courses in the Normal School, one of two years for pupils intending to become teachers in the lower primary schools, the other of three years for the higher primary schools. The courses begin in April, and continue, with seven weeks of vacation, throughout the year. The subjects of instruction are: Religious instruction, German, French, mathematics, history, geography, natural history and philosophy, pedagogy, writing, drawing, and vocal and instrumental music. French is only obligatory upon the students of the three years' course. Gymnastic exercises and swimming are regularly taught and practised.

There is, besides, a lecture of an hour and a half on the art of building, once a week, attended by all the students. Those who learn instrumental music have lessons two hours and a half every week, and two hours of Sunday are occupied with singing in concert. One of the teachers devotes two extra hours every week to the assistance of some of the pupils in their studies, or to repetitions.

At the close of each year there is a public examination, and the pupils are classed according to its results. On leaving the institution, they are arranged in three grades; the first, of those who have gone very satisfactorily through the school, the second, of those who have passed satisfactorily, and the third, of those who have not come up to the standard. Certificates of the first two grades entitle their holders to compete for any vacant primary school.

The courses of practice begin in the second year, when the pupils take regular part in the exercises of the schools attached to the seminary. These are, first, two model schools for children from the ages of six to nine, and from nine to twelve, at which latter age the legal obligation to attend the school ceases. The third, called a secondary school, contains pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age. The system of instruction used in the lower schools is attended with very striking results. The lessons are not divided into distinct branches, studiously kept separate, as in most elementary schools, but are connected, as far as possible, so as to keep the different subjects constantly before the mind. Thus, a lesson of geography is, at the same time, one of history, and incidentally of grammar, natural history, of reading and writing, and so on through the circle of elementary instruction. The Pestalozzian lessons on form are made the basis of writing, and with good success. The lowest class is taught to speak correctly, and to spell by the phonic method, to divide words into syllables, and thus to count. To number the lessons. To make forms and combine them, and thus to write, and through writing to read. The second passes to practical grammar, continues its reading and writing, the lessons in which are made exercises of natural history and grammar. Reading and speaking are combined to produce accuracy in the latter, which is a difficulty where the language has been corrupted into a dialect, as the German has in northern Switzerland. Movable letters are used to give exercises in spelling and reading. The plan of the Pestalozzian exercises in grammar is followed, and when the pupils have learned to write, a whole class, or even two classes, may be kept employed intellectually, as well as mechanically, by one teacher. In reading, the understanding of every thing read is insisted upon, and the class-books are graduated accordingly. I never saw more intelligence and readiness displayed by children than in all these exercises; it affords a

strong contrast to the dullness of schools in which they are taught mechanically. The same principles are carried into the upper classes, and are transplanted into the schools by the young teachers, who act here as assistants. The examination of the second school in Bible history, with its connected geography and grammar lessons; in composition, with special reference to orthography and to the hand-writing; and the music lesson, at all of which the director was so kind as to enable me to be present, were highly creditable.

There are three classes in each of these schools, and the pupils of the Normal Seminary practice as assistant teachers in them at certain periods; the director also gives lessons, which the pupils of the seminary repeat in his presence.

In the highest, or secondary school, the elementary courses are extended, and mathematics and French are added.

The pupils of the preparatory department of the seminary spend two years in teaching in the two model schools, and in receiving instruction in the "secondary school" under the special charge of the director of the seminary. This establishment has furnished, during three years of full activity, two hundred teachers to the cantonal primary schools. These young teachers replace the older ones, who are found by the courses of repetition not able to come up to the present state of instruction, and who receive a retiring pension. The schools must thus be rapidly regenerated throughout the canton, and the education of the people raised to the standard of their wants as republicans.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE THREE COURSES, AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT LUCERN, SWITZERLAND.

HOUSE.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
3 to 9, or 4 past 9,	1st course, Arithmetic, Grammar and school discipline, 2d and 3d course, Grammar and school discipline, Arithmetic,	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Grammar, Writing, 3d course, Writing, Religious instruction,	1st course, Geometry, Composition, 2d and 3d course, Composition, Geometry,	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Writing, 3d course, Writing, Religious instruction,	Same as Monday.	1st and 2d course, Religious instruction, Grammar, 3d course, Geometry, Religious instruction.
9, or 4 past 9, to 10 or 11,	Grammar and school discipline, . . .	1st course, Grammar, Geometry, 2d and 3d course, Composition,	Composition, . . .	1st course, Writing, Religious instruction, 2d and 3d course, Arithmetic,	. . .	Religious instruction.
10 to 11,	. . .	Geometry, . . .	. . .	Composition, . . .	. . .	Statistics of Switzerland 2d and 3d course, Singing.
11 to 12,	. . .	Singing, . . .	Singing, . . .	Singing, . . .	. . .	Arithmetic, . . .
1st course, 4 past 1 to 3, 3 to 4,	1st course, Art of teaching, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy or history, Gymnastics,	1st course, History, Writing, Geography, 2d and 3d course, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy, Gymnastics,	1st course, . . . 2d and 3d course, . . .	1st course, Art of teaching, Arithmetic, Drawing, . . .	2d and 3d course, Arithmetic, School discipline, . . .	1st course, History, Arithmetic, Natural philosophy or history, Gymnastics.
6 to 7,	Gymnastics, Geography,	Geography, Gymnastics,	Geography, Gymnastics,	Geography, Gymnastics,	Geography, Gymnastics,	Geography, Gymnastics.



COURSE OF INSTRUCTION PURSUED IN THE NORMAL SEMINARY AT ZÜRICH, SWITZERLAND.					
	1st Class and 1st School year.	2nd Class and 2nd School year.	3rd Class and 3rd School year.	4th Class and 4th School year.	5th Class and 5th School year.
Religion	Geography of Palestine, Jewish Archaeology, History of the Christian Church.	Faith and morals, as founded on revelation.	Lectures on the Bible, with questions.	Lectures on the Bible, with practical illustrations and references.	Deeper and more abstruse points of doctrine, with scriptural proofs and practical illustrations.
German Language.	Grammar, exercises in reading and recitations, composition.	Grammar, continuation of exercises in reading and recitations, composition of letters and speeches.	Etymology, and logical exercises, recitations, and composition.	Repetitions of the more difficult parts of grammar, more extended compositions, laws of poetry.	The more important peculiarities of the German language, verbal expositions of the written exercises.
French Language.	Exercises in reading, and translation of easy pieces of French into German, introduction to the grammar, and etymology.	Continuation of the above beginning of the translation of German into French: grammar: vocabulary.	Continued exercises of reading and translation: German: grammar: syntax: trans. from German into French: speaking.	Continuation of exercises in reading and translation: conclusion of syntax: recitations of easy pieces.	Further expositions of grammar, more difficult translations from & into French and German respectively: composition.
Arithmetic.	Elementary rules of arithmetic, vulgar and Decimal Fractions.	Proportion: mental arithmetic.	Continuation of exercises in the elementary rules.	Continuation of exercises in Proportion: Simple Equations.	More difficult applications of the preceding rules.
Geometry.	The doctrine of parallel lines, properties of triangles, similar triangles.	Measurement of triangles, and straight line figures, planimetry.	Further exposition of the properties of triangles, and of straight line figures.	The circle: elements of stereometry: easy questions in practical geometry.	Continuation of planimetry: plain and solid angles: projection of straight line figures: questions in the above subjects.
History.	History from the beginning of the world to the subjection of Greece to the Romans.	From the building of Rome to the Westphalian Peace.	History of Switzerland from the beginning to the Westphalian Peace.	History of Switzerland as it bears on that of the rest of the world to the present period.	General history from 1815 to the present time.

Geography.	Introductory explanations, the ocean and continents, with their respective divisions.	Special geography of Europe.	The most important points of mathematical and physical geography.	Geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.	More extended expositions of mathematical and physical geography.	Special geography of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.
Natural History.	General introduction to natural history; description of elementary bodies, general characteristics of minerals.	Unmetalloid minerals, metals, mountains, introduction to botany.	Systems of botany, description of plants, special information on the plants known to the pupils.	Introduction to zoology: classification and descriptions, introduction to the natural history of man.	Natural history of man: further expositions of the natural history of the lower animals.	Introduction to geology: fossils.
Physics.	::	::	The common phenomena arising from the various properties of differently constituted bodies.	Acoustics, optics, heat, magnetism, electricity.	Further exposition of the above subjects.	Further exposition of the above subjects.
Singing.	Elementary exercises of the voice, easy choral exercises.	Melody, religious hymns and choral singing.	Further exercises in Sol Fa, also with words, exercises in solo singing and choral singing.	Continuation of the above, special exposition of the art of teaching music.	Continuation of the above.	Continuation of the above.
Art of Writing.	Exercises in German and Roman character, in legal writing, and in black letter writing, music, and stenography.				::	::
Drawing.	Sketches from objects placed before the pupil, and from nature; special exercises in shading.				::	::
Art of Teaching.	::	::	Introduction to psychology, methods of instruction.	Further exposition of methods of instruction, and of the canonical laws and regulations relative to schools, practical teaching in the primary school.	Fundamental principles of the science of teaching.	Practical teaching in the secondary school.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD, AT LAUSANNE, DURING THE WINTER OF 1838-1839.						
HOURS.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
8	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction (all.)	As on Monday.	Idem.	Idem.	Idem.	Idem.
9	The art of teaching (all.)	General history (all.)	The art of teaching (all.)	Use of globes, first and second classes.	Swiss history (all.)	Instruction in law and in the duties of a citizen, 1, 2, 3.
10	Geometry, 1, 2. The means of improving the health and condition of the people.	Arithmetic, 1, 2. Thème, 3.	Thème, 1, 2. Arithmetic, 3.	Composition, 1, 2. Mental arithmetic, 3.	Arithmetic, 1, 2. Thème, 3.	Thème, 1, 2. Arithmetic, 3.
11	Botany, 1, 2.	Writing, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, then Zoology, 1, 2, 3.	Writing, 1, 2, 3.	Chemistry, &c. 1, 2, 3.
1	.	.	.	.	Exercises on the physical sciences, 1, 2.	Writing, 3.
2	Grammar, 1, 2, 3.	Drawing, 1, 2; reading, 3.	Grammar, 1, 2, 3.	Drawing, 3; mental arithmetic, 1, 2.	Geometry, 3.	Geometry, 1, 2.
3	Gymnastics, 1, 2.	Drawing, 1, 2.	Gymnastics, 3.	Drawing, 3; reading, 1, 2.	Composition, 1, 2.	.
4	Geography, 3.	Geography, 1, 2.	Book-keeping, 1. Reading, 1, 2.	Reading, 3.	Pedagogical exercises in mathematics, 1, 2.	.
5	.	Geography, 3.	Geometry, 3.	(Geography, 1, 2.	Swiss Geography, 1, 2, 3.	.
7	.	Singing, 3.	Singing, 1, 2, 3.	Singing, 1, 2.	Singing, 1, 2, 3.	.

N. B.—The figures denote the different classes. The figure 1 being attached to the most advanced class.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CANTON OF VAUD AT LAUSANNE, IN THE SUMMER OF 1905.						
HOURL.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
5	.	Book-keeping (teachers,)* Writing (pupils,)* As on Monday,	Geography (teachers,) Writing (pupils,)	.	.	On the method of writing (teachers.)
6	Prayer, reading, and religious instruction, Composition (older pupils,)	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday,	As on Monday.
7	Arithmetic, (younger pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) A theme (pupils,)	Composition (teachers,) Geometry (pupils,)	Arithmetic (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)
8	The art of teaching (all,)	Use of the globes (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and duties of a citizen (all,)	Art of teaching (all,)	Instruction in the law and in the duties of a citizen (all,)
9	Geography (teachers,) Mental arithmetic (pupils,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geography (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers,) Grammar (pupils,)	Reading, with analysis of the grammar, structure, and meaning (all,)	Grammar (teachers,) Geography (pupils,)	Geometry (teachers,) Grammar (pupils,)
10	Natural history (all,)	Physics (pupils,)	Natural history (all,)	Natural history (all,)	Pedagogical exercises on the physical sciences (pupils,)	Reading (teachers,) Arithmetic (older pupils,)
11	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	A theme (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)	.	.
12	Gymnastics (pupils,)	Drawing (teachers,) Composition (young pupils,)	Geography of Switzerland (teachers,)	Drawing (pupils,)	Gymnastics (pupils,)	.
13	Reading (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,)	Reading (all,)	Singing (teachers,) Arithmetic (pupils,)	Practical geometry (pupils,)
14	Mental Arithmetic, (teachers,)	Singing (all,)	Singing (pupils,)	Singing (all,)	Singing (pupils,)	.

\* Teachers are masters of elementary schools in attendance on the Normal School.

† Pupils are young men who have not had charge of elementary schools, but who are preparing for the duties of schoolmasters.



## IX. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL OF NEW YORK, AT ALBANY.

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at Albany, was established by an Act of the Legislature of New York in 1844, "for the instruction and practice of Teachers of Common Schools, in the science of Education and the Art of Teaching." Like similar institutions in other states and countries, it originated in the demand of the more advanced teachers, educators, and statesmen, for opportunities of special preparation as a pre-requisite for the delicate and difficult work of a schoolmaster.

### HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

Among the earliest and most earnest advocates of legislative provision for the professional training of teachers, stands the name of Governor De Wit Clinton. In his message to the Legislature in 1825, he recommends "to their consideration, the education of competent teachers;" and in 1826, he again adverts to the subject in the following language:

"Our system of instruction, with all its numerous benefits, is still, however, susceptible of improvement. Ten years of the life of a child may now be spent in a common school. In two years the elements of instruction may be acquired, and the remaining eight years must either be spent in repetition or idleness, unless the teachers of common schools are competent to instruct in the higher branches of knowledge. The outlines of geography, algebra, mineralogy, agricultural chemistry, mechanical philosophy, surveying, geometry, astronomy, political economy and ethics, might be communicated in that period of time, by able preceptors, without essential interference with the calls of domestic industry. The vocation of a teacher in its influence on the character and destiny of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood, or duly estimated. It is, or ought to be, ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructors of our common schools does not extend beyond rudimentary education; that our expanding population requires constant accession to their numbers; and that to realize these views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments. A compliance with this recommendation will have the most benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity."

And again, in his message in 1828, Governor Clinton urges the subject on the attention of the Legislature.

"It may be taken for granted, that the education of the body of the people can never attain the requisite perfection without competent instructors, well acquainted with the outlines of literature and the elements of science." He recommends with this view, "a law authorizing the supervisors of each county to raise a sum not exceeding \$2000, provided



that the same sum is subscribed by individuals, for the erection of a suitable edifice for a Monitorial High School, in the county town. I can conceive of no reasonable objection to the adoption of a measure so well calculated to raise the character of our school masters, and to double the powers of our artisans by giving them a scientific education."

In 1826, Hon. John C. Spencer, from the Literature Committee of the Senate, to whom the message of Governor Clinton for that year had been referred, made a report, recommending among other plans for the improvement of common schools, that the income of the "Literature Fund" be divided among the academies of the State, not in reference to the number of *classical students* in each, but "to the number of persons instructed in each, who shall have been licensed as teachers of common schools by a proper board." He thus introduces the subject:

"In the view which the committee have taken, our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed on our colleges and academies. If they do not answer this purpose, they can be of very little use. That they have not hitherto been more extensively useful in that respect is owing to inherent defects in the system of studies pursued there. When the heads of our colleges are apprised of the great want of teachers which it is so completely in their power to relieve, if not supply, it is but reasonable to expect that they will adopt a system by which young men whose pursuits do not require a knowledge of classics, may avail themselves of the talent and instruction in those institutions, suited to their wants, without being compelled also to receive that which they do not want, and for which they have neither time nor money."

"In 1827, Mr. Spencer, from the same Committee, reported a bill entitled 'An act to provide permanent funds for the annual appropriation to common schools, to increase the Literature Fund, and to promote the education of teachers,' by which the sum of \$150,000 was added to the Literature Fund. And the Regents of the University were required annually to distribute the whole income of this fund among the several incorporated academies and seminaries, which then were or might thereafter become subject to their visitation, 'in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each academy or seminary for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both.' In the report accompanying this bill, which, on the 13th of April, became a law, the committee expressly observe, that their object in thus increasing this fund is 'to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, which it is hoped may be accomplished to some extent, by offering inducements to the trustees of academies to educate pupils of that description.' 'In vain will you have established a system of instruction; in vain will you appropriate money to educate the children of the poor, if you do not provide persons competent to execute your system, and to teach the pupils collected in the schools. And every citizen who has paid attention to it and become acquainted practically with the situation of our schools, knows that the incompetency of the great mass of teachers is a radical defect which impedes the whole system, frustrates the benevolent designs of the Legislature, and defeats the hopes and wishes of all who feel an interest in disseminating the blessings of education.' 'Having undertaken a system of public instruction, it is the solemn duty of the Legislature to make that system as perfect as possible. We have no right to trifle with

the funds of our constituents, by applying them in a mode which fails to attain the intended object. Competent teachers of common schools must be provided; the academies of the State furnish the means of making that provision. There are funds which may be safely and properly applied to that object, and if there were none, a more just, patriotic, and in its true sense, popular reason for taxation cannot be urged. Let us aid the efforts of meritorious citizens who have devoted large portions of their means to the rearing of academies; let us reward them by giving success to their efforts; let us sustain seminaries that are falling into decay; let us revive the drooping and animate the prosperous, by cheering rays of public beneficence; and thus let us provide nurseries for the education of our children, and for the instruction of teachers who will expand and widen and deepen the great stream of education, until it shall reach our remotest borders, and prepare our posterity for the maintenance of the glory and prosperity of their country."

The legal provision for the better education of teachers rested on this basis until 1834, when an act was passed, by which the surplus income of the Literature Fund over twelve thousand dollars was placed at the disposal of the Regents of the University, to be by them distributed to such academies, subject to their visitation as they might select, and to be *exclusively devoted to the education of teachers for the common schools*, in such manner and under such regulations as they might prescribe.

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of 2d of May, 1834, authorizing the Regents of the University to apply a part of the income to the Literature Fund to the education of common school teachers, a plan was reported on the 8th of January, 1835, by Gen. DIX, from the committee appointed for that purpose, to the Regents with the view of carrying into effect the intention of the act. This plan was approved and adopted by the Regents; and one academy was selected in each of the eight Senate districts, charged with the establishment of a Department specially adapted to the instruction of teachers of common schools. To support these departments, each academy received from the Literature Fund, a sufficient sum to procure the necessary apparatus for the illustration of the various branches required to be taught; the sum of \$191 to be appropriated to the enlargement of the academical library; and an annual appropriation of \$400 to meet the increased expense which might devolve upon the institution in consequence of the establishment of the teachers' department.

In his annual Report for 1836, the Superintendent (Gen. DIX,) again adverts to the fact, that in the adoption of this system 'the Legislature has merely provided for the more complete execution of a design long entertained. so far as respects the employment of the academies for this purpose. The propriety of founding separate institutions,' he continues, 'upon the model of the seminaries for teachers in Prussia, was for several years a subject of public discussion in this State. It was contended, on the one hand, that such institutions would be more likely to secure the object in view; and on the other, that it might be as effectually and more readily accomplished through the organized academies.' After again referring to the act of April 13, 1827, he concludes:

"Thus although the plan of engrafting upon the academies, departments for the preparation of teachers, may not have been contemplated at the time, yet this measure is to be regarded only as a more complete development of the design of the Legislature in passing the act referred to."

"By the 8th section of the act of April 17, 1838, appropriating the income of the United States Deposit Fund to the purposes of education,

&c. the sum of \$23,000 was directed to be annually paid over to the Literature Fund, and apportioned among the several academies of the State; and by the 9th section, it was made the duty of the Regents of the University 'to require every academy receiving a distributive share of public money, under the preceding section equal to seven hundred dollars per annum, to establish and maintain in such academy, a department for the instruction of common school teachers, under the direction of the said Regents, as a condition of receiving the distributive share of every such academy.' Under this provision eight academies, in addition to those designated specially for this purpose by the Regents, established departments for the education of teachers.

Desirous of knowing the practical operation of the departments thus organized, the superintendent (Mr. SPENCER) during the summer of 1840, commissioned the Rev. Dr. Potter of Union College, and D. H. Little, Esq. of Cherry-Valley, to visit these institutions, and report the result of their examinations to the department, accompanied by such suggestions as they might deem expedient. Prof. Potter in his report, after enumerating the various advantages and defects which had presented themselves to his observation in the course of his examination, observes in conclusion:

'The principal evil connected with our present means of training teachers, is, that they contribute to supply instructors for *select* rather than for common schools; and that for want of special exercises, they perform even that work imperfectly. I would suggest whether some means might not be adopted for training a class of teachers, with more especial reference to country common schools, and to primary schools in villages and cities; teachers whose attainments should not extend much beyond the common English branches, but whose minds should be awakened by proper influence; who should be made familiar by practice with the best modes of teaching; and who should come under strong obligations to teach for at least two or three years. In Prussia and France, normal schools are supported at the public expense; most of the pupils receive both board and tuition gratuitously; but at the close of the course they give bonds to refund the whole amount received, unless they teach under the direction of the government for a certain number of years. That such schools, devoted exclusively to the preparation of teaching, have some advantages over any other method, is sufficiently apparent from the experience of other nations: and it has occurred to me that, as supplementary to our present system, the establishment of one in this State might be eminently useful. If placed under proper auspices and located near the Capitol, where it could enjoy the supervision of the Superintendent of Common Schools, and be visited by the members of the Legislature, it might contribute in many ways to raise the tone of instruction throughout the State.'

From an examination of these reports, the Superintendent comes to the conclusion that 'these departments ought not to be abandoned, but sustained and encouraged, and the means of establishing a large number in other academies provided. They, with the other academies and colleges of the State, furnish the supply of teachers indispensable to the maintenance of our schools.' He recommends 'the extension of the public patronage to all the academies in the State, to enable them to establish teachers' departments; and in those counties where there are no academies, the establishment of normal schools.' 'One model school or more,' he thinks, 'might be advantageously established in some central parts of the State, to which teachers, and those intending to be such, might repair to acquire the best methods of conducting our common schools.'

By a resolution adopted by the Regents of the University, on the 4th of May of the same year, eight additional academies were designated for the establishment and maintenance of teachers' departments; and the appropriation to each of the institutions in which such departments had been organized by the Regents, reduced to \$300 per annum. At this period, including the academies which were required, under the act of 1838, to maintain such departments in consequence of the receipt of a specified portion of the Literature Fund, the number of academies in which departments for the education of teachers were organized was twenty-three, and the number of students taught in them about six hundred."

The above facts and extracts have been principally gathered from a "Report of the Committee on Colleges, Academies, and Common Schools," to the House of Representatives in 1844, of which Mr. Hurlburt, of St. Lawrence, was chairman, and the author of the able document referred to. The Committee, on passing to the consideration of a State Normal School, remark:

"From this recapitulation, it will appear that the principal reliance of the friends and supporters of the common schools, for an adequate supply of teachers, has, from a very early period, been upon the academies; that the inability of the latter to supply this demand, induced, in 1827, an increase of \$150,000 of the fund, applicable to their support; and this for the express purpose of enabling them to accomplish this object; that the Regents of the University, the guardians of these institutions, characterized this increase of the fund as an unwonted and "extraordinary" act of liberality on the part of the State towards them; explicitly recognized the condition, or rather the avowed *expectations* on which it was granted; accepted the trust, and undertook to perform those conditions, and to fulfill those expectations; that, to use the language of one of the superintendents, 'the design of the law was not sustained by the measures necessary to give it the form and effect of a system;' that to remedy this evil, one academy was specially designated in each Senate district with an endowment of \$500 to provide the necessary means and facilities of instruction, and an annual appropriation of \$400, for the maintenance of a department for the education of teachers; and soon afterwards the sum of \$28,000 added to the Literature Fund from the avails of the U. S. Deposit Fund, while eight additional academies were required to organize and maintain similar departments; that, finally, the number of these departments was augmented to twenty-three, and every exertion put forth to secure the great results originally contemplated in their establishment; and that in the judgment of successive superintendents of common schools, the Regents of the University and the most eminent and practical friends of education throughout the state, these institutions, whether considered in the aggregate or with reference to those specially designated, from time to time, for the performance of this important duty, of supplying the common schools with competent teachers, have not succeeded in the accomplishment of that object. Having, therefore, to revert again to the language of the superintendent before referred to, 'proved inadequate to the ends proposed,' may not now 'a change of plan' be insisted on without being open to the objection of abandoning a system which has not been fairly tested? And have the academies any just reason to complain, if they are not longer permitted to enjoy undiminished the liberal appropriations conferred upon them by the State for a *specific object*; an object which they have not been able satisfactorily to accomplish?"

This committee having satisfied themselves that all former legislation on this subject was inadequate, and having examined, by a sub-committee, the Normal Schools of Massachusetts, and inquired into their operation in other countries, recommended the establishment of a Normal School at Albany, "for the education and training of teachers for common schools," and that the sum of \$9,600 for the first year, and \$10,000 annually for five years thereafter, in appropriations for its support. This recommendation was adopted by an almost unanimous vote.

This institution is required to be located in the county of Albany; and is to be under the supervision, management and direction of the Superintendent of Common Schools and the Regents of the University, who are authorized and required "from time to time to make all needful rules and regulations; to fix the number and compensation of teachers and others to be employed therein; to prescribe the preliminary examination, and the terms and conditions on which pupils shall be received and instructed therein—the number of pupils from the respective cities and counties, conforming as nearly as may be to the ratio of population—to fix the location of the said school, and the terms and conditions on which the grounds and buildings therefor shall be rented, if the same shall not be provided by the corporation of the city of Albany; and to provide in all things for the good government and management of the said school." They are required to appoint a board, consisting of five persons, including the Superintendent of Common Schools, who are to constitute an executive committee for the care, management and government of the school, under the rules prescribed by the Board of Regents. Such executive committee, are to make full and detailed reports from time to time to the Superintendent and Regents, and among other things to recommend such rules and regulations as they may deem proper for said schools.

The superintendent and Regents are required annually to transmit to the Legislature an account of their proceedings and expenditures, together with a detailed report from the executive committee, relating to the progress, condition, and prospects of the school.

The city of Albany tendered the use of a suitable building, free of rent, for the use of the institution, and the school was organized and commenced the business of instruction in December, 1844, under the charge of David P. Page, Esq., of Newburyport, Mass., as Principal.

The following members composed the Executive Committee, under which the institution was organized: Hon. Samuel Young, State Superintendent, Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D., Rev. Wm. H. Campbell, Gideon Hawley and Francis Dwight, Esqrs.

To be continued.

## X. ESSAY ON EDUCATION.\*

BY OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

As few subjects are more interesting to society, so few have been more frequently written upon, than the education of youth. Yet is it not a little surprising, that it should have been treated almost by all in a declamatory manner? They have insisted largely on the advantages that result from it, both to the individual and to society, and have expatiated in the praise of what no one has ever been so hardy as to call in question.

Instead of giving us fine but empty harangues upon this subject, instead of indulging each his particular and whimsical system, it had been much better if the writers on this subject had treated it in a more scientific manner, repressed all the sallies of imagination, and given us the result of their observations with didactic simplicity. Upon this subject the smallest errors are of the most dangerous consequence; and the author should venture the imputation of stupidity upon a topic, where his slightest deviations may tend to injure the rising generation.

I shall, therefore, throw out a few thoughts upon this subject, which have not been attended to by others, and shall dismiss all attempts to please, while I study only instruction.

The manner in which our youth of London are at present educated is, some in free schools in the city, but the far greater number in boarding schools about town. The parent justly consults the health of his child, and finds that an education in the country tends to promote this much more than a continuance in the town. Thus far they are right: if there were a possibility of having even our free schools kept a little out of town, it would certainly conduce to the health and vigor of perhaps the mind as well as of the body. It may be thought whimsical, but it is truth,—I have found by experience, that they who have spent all their lives in cities, contract not only an effeminacy of habit, but even of thinking.

But when I have said, that the boarding schools are preferable to free schools, as being in the country, this is certainly the only advantage I can allow them; otherwise it is impossible to conceive the ignorance of those who take upon them the important trust of education. Is any man unfit for any of the professions? he finds his last resource in setting up school. Do any become bankrupts in trade? they still set up a boarding school, and drive a trade this way,

\* This Essay was originally published in the *Bau*, No. VI, Nov. 10th, 1759. It was afterwards introduced by the author into a volume of Essays with the following observation: "This Treatise was published before Rousseau's *Emilius*:" if there be a similitude in any instance, it is hoped that the author of the present essay will not be termed a plagiarist." In this reprint we follow Bohn's Edition of the "Works of Oliver Goldsmith." 4 vols. London. 1854.



when all others fail: nay, I have been told of butchers and barbers, who have turned schoolmasters; and, more surprising still, made fortunes in their new professions.

Could we think ourselves in a country of civilized people—could it be conceived that we have any regard for posterity, when such are permitted to take the charge of the morals, genius, and health of those dear little pledges, who may one day be the guardians of the liberties of Europe, and who may serve as the honor and bulwark of their aged parents? The care of our children, is it below the state? is it fit to indulge the caprice of the ignorant with the disposal of their children in this particular? For the state to take the charge of all its children, as in Persia or Sparta, might at present be inconvenient; but surely with great ease it might cast an eye to their instructors. Of all members of society, I do not know a more useful or a more honorable one, than a schoolmaster; at the same time that I do not see any more generally despised, or whose talents are so ill rewarded.

Were the salaries of schoolmasters to be augmented from a diminution of useless sinecures, how might it turn to the advantage of this people—a people whom, without flattery, I may in other respects term the wisest and greatest upon earth! But, while I would reward the deserving, I would dismiss those utterly unqualified for their employment: in short, I would make the business of a schoolmaster every way more respectable, by increasing their salaries, and admitting only men of proper abilities.

There are already schoolmasters appointed, and they have some small salaries; but where at present there is but one schoolmaster appointed, there should at least be two; and wherever the salary is at present twenty pounds, it should be a hundred. Do we give immoderate benefices to those who instruct ourselves, and shall we deny even subsistence to those who instruct our children? Every member of society should be paid in proportion as he is necessary: and I will be bold enough to say, that schoolmasters in a state are more necessary than clergymen, as children stand in more need of instruction than their parents.

But, instead of this, as I have already observed, we send them to board in the country to the most ignorant set of men that can be imagined. But lest the ignorance of the master be not sufficient, the child is generally consigned to the usher. This is generally some poor needy animal, little superior to a footman either in learning or spirit, invited to his place by an advertisement, and kept there merely from his being of a complying disposition, and making the children fond of him. "You give your child to be educated to a slave," says a philosopher to a rich man; "instead of one slave, you will then have two."

It were well, however, if parents, upon fixing their children in one of these houses, would examine the abilities of the usher as well as of the master; for, whatever they are told to the contrary, the usher is generally the person most employed in their education. If, then, a gentleman, upon putting out his son to one of these houses, sees the usher disregarded by the master, he may depend upon it, that he is equally disregarded by the boys; the truth is, in spite of all their endeavors to please, they are generally the laughingstock of the school. Every trick is played upon the usher; the oddity of his manners, his dress, or his language, is a fund of eternal ridicule; the master himself now and then can not avoid joining in the laugh, and the poor wretch, eternally resenting this

ill usage, seems to live in a state of war with all the family. This is a very proper person, is it not, to give children a relish for learning? They must esteem learning very much, when they see its professors used with such ceremony! If the usher be despised, the father may be assured his child will never be properly instructed.\*

But let me suppose, that there are some schools without these inconveniences,—where the master and ushers are men of learning, reputation, and assiduity. If there are to be found such, they can not be prized in a state sufficiently. A boy will learn more true wisdom in a public school in a year, than by a private education in five. It is not from masters, but from their equals, youth learn a knowledge of the world: the little tricks they play each other, the punishment that frequently attends the commission, is a just picture of the great world, and all the ways of men are practiced in a public school in miniature. It is true, a child is early made acquainted with some vices in a school, but it is better to know these when a boy, than be first taught them when a man, for their novelty then may have irresistible charms.

In a public education boys early learn temperance; and if the parents and friends would give them less money upon their usual visits, it would be much to their advantage, since it may justly be said, that a great part of their disorders arise from surfeit,—*plus occidit gula quam gladius*. And now I am come to the article of health, it may not be amiss to observe, that Mr. Locke and some others have advised, that children should be inured to cold, to fatigue, and hardship, from their youth; but Mr. Locke was but an indifferent physician. Habit, I grant, has great influence over our constitutions, but we have not precise ideas upon this subject.

We know that, among savages, and even among our peasants, there are found children born with such constitutions, that they cross rivers by swimming, endure cold, thirst, hunger, and want of sleep, to a surprising degree; that when they happen to fall sick, they are cured, without the help of medicine, by nature alone. Such examples are adduced, to persuade us to imitate their manner of education, and accustom ourselves betimes to support the same fatigues. But had these gentlemen considered, first, that those savages and peasants are generally not so longlived as they who have led a more indolent life; secondly, that the more laborious the life is, the less populous is the country: had they considered, that what physicians call the *stamina vite*, by fatigue and labor become rigid, and thus anticipate old age; that the number who survive those rude trials, bears no proportion to those who die in the experiment: had these things been properly considered, they would not have thus extolled an education begun in fatigue and hardships. Peter the Great, willing to inure the children of his seamen to a life of hardship, ordered that they should drink only sea water, but they unfortunately all died under the experiment.

But while I would exclude all unnecessary labors, yet still I would recommend temperance in the highest degree. No luxurious dishes with high seasoning, nothing given children to force an appetite, as little sugared or salted provisions as possible, though never so pleasing; but milk, morning and night, should be their constant food. This diet would make them more healthy than any of those slops that are usually cooked by the mistress of a boarding school;

\* The author's remarks upon this subject are the more worthy of attention, that he himself knew by experience the duties and annoyances of such a situation.—Bols.

besides, it corrects any consumptive habits, not unfrequently found amongst the children of city parents.

As boys should be educated with temperance, so the first greatest lesson that should be taught them is, to admire frugality. It is by the exercise of this virtue alone, they can ever expect to be useful members of society. It is true, lectures continually repeated upon this subject, may make some boys, when they grow up, run into an extreme, and become misers; but it were well had we more misers than we have among us. I know few characters more useful in society; for a man's having a larger or smaller share of money lying useless by him no way injures the commonwealth; since, should every miser now exhaust his stores, this might make gold more plenty, but it would not increase the commodities or pleasures of life; they would still remain as they are at present: it matters not, therefore, whether men are misers or not, if they be only frugal, laborious, and fill the station they have chosen. If they deny themselves the necessaries of life, society is no way injured by their folly.

Instead, therefore, of romances, which praise young men of spirit, who go through a variety of adventures, and, at last, conclude a life of dissipation, folly, and extravagance, in riches and matrimony, there should be some men of wit employed to compose books that might equally interest the passions of our youth; where such a one might be praised for having resisted allurements when young, and how he, at last, became lord mayor—how he was married to a lady of great sense, fortune, and beauty: to be as explicit as possible, the old story of Whittington, were his cat left out, might be more serviceable to the tender mind than either Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, or a hundred others, where frugality is the only good quality the hero is not possessed of. Were our schoolmasters, if any of them had sense enough to draw up such a work, thus employed, it would be much more serviceable to their pupils, than all the grammars and dictionaries they may publish these ten years.

Children should early be instructed in the arts, from which they would afterwards draw the greatest advantages. When the wonders of nature are never exposed to our view, we have no great desire to become acquainted with those parts of learning which pretend to account for the phenomena. One of the ancients complains, that as soon as young men have left school, and are obliged to converse in the world, they fancy themselves transported into a new region: "*Ut cum in forum venerint existiment se in aliam terrarum orbem delatos.*" We should early, therefore, instruct them in the experiments, if I may so express it, of knowledge, and leave to maturer age the accounting for the causes. But instead of that, when boys begin natural philosophy in colleges, they have not the least curiosity for those parts of the science which are proposed for their instruction; they have never before seen the phenomena, and consequently have no curiosity to learn the reasons. Might natural philosophy, therefore, be made their pastime in school, by this means it would in college become their amusement.

In several of the machines now in use, there would be ample field both for instruction and amusement: the different sorts of the phosphorus, the artificial pyrites, magnetism, electricity, the experiments upon the rarefaction and weight of the air, and those upon elastic bodies, might employ their idle hours, and none should be called from play to see such experiments but such as thought proper. At first, then, it would be sufficient if the instruments, and the effects

of their combination, were only shown; the causes should be deferred to a maturer age, or to those times when natural curiosity prompts us to discover the wonders of nature. Man is placed in this world as a spectator; when he is tired with wondering at all the novelties about him, and not till then, does he desire to be made acquainted with the causes that create those wonders.

What I have observed with regard to natural philosophy, I would extend to every other science whatsoever. We should teach them as many of the facts as were possible, and defer the causes until they seemed of themselves desirous of knowing them. A mind thus leaving school stored with all the simple experiences of science, would be the fittest in the world for the college course; and though such a youth might not appear so bright, or so talkative, as those who had learned the real principles and causes of some of the sciences, yet he would make a wiser man, and would retain a more lasting passion for letters, than he who was early burdened with the disagreeable institution of effect and cause.

In history, such stories alone should be laid before them as might catch the imagination: instead of this, they are too frequently obliged to toil through the four empires, as they are called, where their memories are burdened by a number of disgusting names, that destroy all their future relish for our best historians, who may be termed the truest teachers of wisdom.

Every species of flattery should be carefully avoided: a boy, who happens to say a sprightly thing, is generally applauded so much, that he happens to continue a coxcomb sometimes all his life after. He is reputed a wit at fourteen, and becomes a blockhead at twenty. Nurses, footmen, and such, should therefore be driven away as much as possible. I was even going to add, that the mother herself should stifle her pleasure or her vanity, when little master happens to say a good or smart thing. Those modest lubberly boys who seem to want spirit, generally go through their business with more ease to themselves; and more satisfaction to their instructors.

There has of late a gentleman appeared, who thinks the study of rhetoric essential to a perfect education.\* That bold male eloquence, which often without pleasing convinces, is generally destroyed by such institutions. Convincing eloquence, however, is infinitely more serviceable to its possessor than the most florid harangue, or the most pathetic tones that can be imagined; and the man who is thoroughly convinced himself, who understands his subject, and the language he speaks in, will be more apt to silence opposition, than he who studies the force of his periods, and fills our ears with sounds, while our minds are destitute of conviction.

It was reckoned the fault of the orators at the decline of the Roman empire, when they had been long instructed by rhetoricians, that their periods were so harmonious, as that they could be sung as well as spoken. What a ridiculous figure must one of these gentlemen cut, thus measuring syllables, and weighing words, when he should plead the cause of his client! Two architects were once candidates for the building a certain temple at Athens: the first harangued the crowd very learnedly upon the different orders of architecture, and showed them in what manner the temple should be built; the other, who got up to speak after him, only observed, that what his brother had spoken he could do; and thus he at once gained his cause.

\* Probably Mr. Thomas Sheridan, who about this time read lectures on rhetoric and elocution.—*Dods.*

To teach men to be orators, is little less than to teach them to be poets; and for my part, I should have too great a regard for my child, to wish him a manor only in a bookseller's shop.

Another passion which the present age is apt to run into, is to make children learn all things,—the languages, the sciences, music, the exercises, and painting. Thus the child soon becomes a *talker* in all, but a *master* in none. He thus acquires a superficial fondness for every thing, and only shows his ignorance when he attempts to exhibit his skill.

As I deliver my thoughts without method or connection, so the reader must not be surprised to find me once more addressing schoolmasters on the present method of teaching the learned languages, which is commonly by literal translations. I would ask such, if they were to travel a journey, whether those parts of the road in which they found the greatest difficulties would not be most strongly remembered? Boys who, if I may continue the allusion, gallop through one of the ancients with the assistance of a translation, can have but a very slight acquaintance either with the author or his language. It is by the exercise of the mind alone that a language is learned; but a literal translation, on the opposite page, leaves no exercise for the memory at all. The boy will not be at the fatigue of remembering, when his doubts are at once satisfied by a glance of the eye; whereas, were every word to be sought from a dictionary, the learner would attempt to remember, in order to save him the trouble of looking out for it for the future.

To continue in the same pedantic strain, though no schoolmaster, of all the various grammars now taught in schools about town, I would recommend only the old common one; I have forgot whether Lilly's, or an emendation of him. The others may be improvements; but such improvements seem to me only mere grammatical niceties, no way influencing the learner, but perhaps loading him with trifling subtleties, which at a proper age he must be at some pains to forget.

Whatever pains a master may take to make the learning of the languages agreeable to his pupil, he may depend upon it, it will be at first extremely unpleasant. The rudiments of every language, therefore, must be given as a task, not as an amusement. Attempting to deceive children into instruction of this kind, is only deceiving ourselves; and I know no passion capable of conquering a child's natural laziness but fear. Solomon has said it before me; nor is there any more certain, though perhaps more disagreeable truth, than the proverb in verse, too well known to repeat on the present occasion. It is very probable that parents are told of some masters who never use the rod, and consequently are thought the properest instructors for their children; but though tenderness is a requisite quality in an instructor, yet there is too often the truest tenderness in well-timed correction.

Some have justly observed, that all passion should be banished on this terrible occasion; but, I know not how, there is a frailty attending human nature, that few masters are able to keep their temper whilst they correct. I knew a good-natured man, who was sensible of his own weakness in this respect, and consequently had recourse to the following expedient to prevent his passions from being engaged, yet at the same time administer justice with impartiality. Whenever any of his pupils committed a fault, he summoned a jury of his peers,—I mean of the boys of his own or the next classes to him; his ac-

causes stood forth; he had a liberty of pleading in his own defense, and one or two more had a liberty of pleading against him: when found guilty by the panel, he was consigned to the footman who attended in the house, who had previous orders to punish, but with lenity. By this means the master took off the odium of punishment from himself; and the footman, between whom and the boys there could not be even the slightest intimacy, was placed in such a light as to be shunned by every boy in the school.

And now I have gone thus far, perhaps you will think me some pedagogue, willing, by a well-timed puff, to increase the reputation of his own school; but such is not the case. The regard I have for society, for those tender minds who are the objects of the present essay, is the only motive I have for offering those thoughts, calculated not to surprise by their novelty, or the elegance of composition, but merely to remedy some defects which have crept into the present system of school education.

[To the foregoing "*Essay on Education*" we add a few detached thoughts selected from other publications and letters by the same author.]

#### HOME EDUCATION. ROMANCE READING. FRUGALITY.

The reasons you have given me for breeding up your son a scholar are judicious and convincing; I should, however, be glad to know for what particular profession he is designed. If he be assiduous, and divested of strong passions, (for passions in youth always lead to pleasure,) he may do very well in your college; for, it must be owned, that the industrious poor have good encouragement there, perhaps better than in any other in Europe. But, if he has ambition, strong passions, and an exquisite sensibility of contempt, do not send him there, unless you have no other trade for him except your own. It is impossible to conceive how much may be done by a proper education at home. A boy, for instance, who understands perfectly well Latin, French, Arithmetic, and the principles of the civil law, and can write a fine hand, has an education that may qualify him for any undertaking. And these parts of learning should be carefully inculcated, let him be designed for whatever calling he will. Above all things, let him never touch a romance or novel; those paint beauty in colors more charming than nature, and describe happiness that man never tastes. How delusive, how destructive, are those pictures of consummate bliss! They teach the youthful mind to sigh after beauty and happiness which never existed; to despise the little good which fortune has mixed in our cup, by expecting more than she ever gave; and in general, take the word of a man who has seen the world, and has studied human nature more by experience than precept—take my word for it, I say, that books teach us very little of the world. The greatest merit in a state of poverty would only serve to make the possessor ridiculous; may distress, but can not relieve him. Frugality, and even avarice, in the lower orders of mankind, are true ambition. These afford the only ladder for the poor to rise to preferment. Teach, then, my dear Sir, to your son thrift and economy. Let his poor wandering uncle's example be placed before his eyes. I had learned from books to be disinterested and generous, before I was taught from experience the necessity of being prudent. I had contracted the habits and notions of a philosopher, while I was exposing myself to the insidious approaches of cunning; and often by being, even with my narrow finances, charitable to excess, I forgot the rules of justice, and placed myself in the very



situation of the wretch who thanked me for my bounty. When I am in the remotest part of the world, tell him this, and perhaps he may improve from my example.—*Letter to Rev. Henry Goldsmith. 1759.*

#### SELF-KNOWLEDGE AND SELF-GOVERNMENT.

In the various objects of knowledge, which I have had the pleasure of seeing you study under my care, as well as those which you have acquired under the various teachers who have hitherto instructed you, the most material branch of information which it imports a human being to know, has been entirely overlooked,—I mean the knowledge of yourself. There are, indeed, very few persons who possess at once the capability and the disposition to give you this instruction. Your parents, who alone are perhaps sufficiently acquainted with you for the purpose, are usually disqualified for the task, by the very affection and partiality which would prompt them to undertake it. Your masters, who probably labor under no such prejudices, have seldom either sufficient opportunities of knowing your character, or are so much interested in your welfare, as to undertake an employment so unpleasant and laborious. You are, as yet, too young and inexperienced to perform this important office for yourself, or, indeed, to be sensible of its very great consequence to your happiness. The ardent hopes and the extreme vanity natural to early youth, blind you at once to every thing within and every thing without, and make you see both yourself and the world in false colors. This illusion, it is true, will gradually wear away as your reason matures, and your experience increases; but the question is, what is to be done in the meantime? Evidently there is no plan for you to adopt but to make use of the reason and experience of those who are qualified to direct you.

Of this, however, I can assure you, both from my own experience, and from the opinions of all those whose opinions deserve to be valued, that if you aim at any sort of eminence or respectability in the eyes of the world, or in those of your friends; if you have any ambition to be distinguished in your future career for your virtues, or talents, or accomplishments, this self-knowledge of which I am speaking is above all things requisite. For how is your moral character to be improved, unless you know what are the virtues and vices which your natural disposition is calculated to foster, and what are the passions which are most apt to govern you? How are you to attain eminence in any talent or pursuit, unless you know in what particular way your powers of mind best capacitate you for excelling? It is therefore my intention, in this letter, to offer you a few hints on this most important subject.

When you come to look abroad into the world, and to study the different characters of men, you will find that the happiness of any individual depends not, as you would suppose, on the advantages of fortune or situation, but principally on the regulation of his own mind. If you are able to secure tranquillity within, you will not be much annoyed by any disturbance without. The great art of doing this consists in a proper government of the passions—in taking care that no propensity is suffered to acquire so much power over your mind as to be the cause of immoderate uneasiness, either to yourself or others. I insist particularly on this point, my dear young friend, because, if I am not greatly deceived, you are yourself very much disposed by nature to two passions, the most tormenting to the possessor, and the most offensive to others, of any which afflict the human race,—I mean pride and anger. Indeed, those

two dispositions seem to be naturally connected with each other; for you have probably remarked, that most proud men are addicted to anger, and that most passionate men are also proud. Be this as it may, I can confidently assure you, that if an attempt is not made to subdue those uneasy propensities now when your temper is flexible, and your mind easy of impression, they will most infallibly prove the bane and torment of your whole life. They will not only destroy all possibility of your enjoying any happiness yourself, but they will produce the same effect on those about you; and by that means you will deprive yourself both of the respect of others, and the approbation of your own heart,—the only two sources from which can be derived any substantial comfort, or real enjoyment.

It is, moreover, a certain principle in morals, that all the bad passions, but especially those of which we are speaking, defeat, in all cases, their own purposes,—a position which appears quite evident, on the slightest examination. For what is the object which the proud man has constantly in view? Is it not to gain distinction, and respect, and consideration among mankind? Now, it is unfortunately the nature of pride to aim at this distinction, not by striving to acquire such virtues and talents as would really entitle him to it, but by laboring to exalt himself above his equals by little and degrading methods; by endeavoring, for example, to outvie them in dress, or show, or expense, or by affecting to look down, with haughty superciliousness, on such as are inferior to himself only by some accidental advantages for which he is no way indebted to his own merit. The consequence of this is, that all mankind declare war against him; his inferiors, whom he affects to despise, will hate him, and consequently will exert themselves to injure and depress him; and his superiors, whom he attempts to imitate, will ridicule his absurd and unavailing efforts to invade what they consider as their own peculiar province.

If it may with truth be said, that a proud man defeats his own purposes, the same may, with equal certainty, be affirmed of a man who gives way to violence of temper. His angry invectives, his illiberal abuse, and his insulting language, produce very little effect on those who hear him, and who, perhaps, only smile at his infirmities; but who can describe the intolerable pangs of vexation, rage, and remorse, by which the heart of a passionate man is successively ravaged? Alas! it is himself alone for whom the storm is pent up, who is torn by its violence, and not those against whom its fury is meant to be directed.—*Letter to a Pupil.*

#### FOREIGN TRAVEL AND RESIDENCE AT A UNIVERSITY.

We seem divided, whether an education formed by traveling or by a sedentary life be preferable. We see more of the world by travel, but more of human nature by remaining at home; as in an infirmary, the student, who only attends to the disorders of a few patients, is more likely to understand his profession, than he who indiscriminately examines them all.

A youth just landed at the Brille resembles a clown at a puppet show; carries his amazement from one miracle to another; from this cabinet of curiosities to that collection of pictures: but wondering is not the way to grow wise.

Whatever resolutions we set ourselves not to keep company with our countrymen abroad, we shall find them broken when once we leave home. Among strangers we consider ourselves as in a solitude, and it is but natural to desire society.

There is more knowledge to be acquired from one page of the volume of mankind, if the scholar only knows how to read, than in volumes of antiquity. We grow learned, not wise, by too long continuance at college.

This points out the time in which we should leave the university. Perhaps the age of twenty-one, when at our universities the first degree is generally taken, is the proper period.

The universities of Europe may be divided into three classes. Those upon the old scholastic establishment, where the pupils are immured, talk nothing but Latin, and support every day syllogistical disputations in school philosophy. Would not one be apt to imagine this was the proper education to make a man a fool? Such are the universities of Prague, Louvain, and Padua. The second is, where the pupils are under few restrictions, where all scholastic jargon is banished, where they take a degree when they think proper, and live not in the college, but the city. Such are Edinburgh, Leyden, Gottingen, Geneva. The third is a mixture of the two former, where the pupils are restrained, but not confined; where many, though not all, the absurdities of scholastic philosophy are suppressed, and where the first degree is taken after four years' matriculation. Such are Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin.

As for the first class, their absurdities are too apparent to admit of a parallel. It is disputed which of the two last are more conducive to national improvement.

Skill in the professions is acquired more by practice than study; two or three years may be sufficient for learning their rudiments. The universities of Edinburgh, &c., grant a license for practicing them when the student thinks proper, which our universities refuse till after a residence of several years.

The dignity of the professions may be supported by this dilatory proceeding; but many men of learning are thus too long excluded from the lucrative advantages, which superior skill has a right to expect.

Those universities must certainly be most frequented, which promise to give in two years, the advantages which others will not under twelve.

The man who has studied a profession for three years, and practiced it for nine more, will certainly know more of his business than he who has only studied it for twelve.

The universities of Edinburgh, &c., must certainly be most proper for the study of those professions in which men choose to turn their learning to profit as soon as possible.

The universities of Oxford, &c., are improper for this, since they keep the student from the world, which, after a certain time, is the only true school of improvement.

When a degree in the professions can be taken only by men of independent fortunes, the number of candidates in learning is lessened, and, consequently, the advancement of learning retarded.

This slowness of conferring degrees is a remnant of scholastic barbarity. Paris, Louvain, and those universities which still retain their ancient institutions, confer the doctor's degree slower even than we.

The statutes of every university should be considered as adapted to the laws of its respective government. Those should alter as these happen to fluctuate.

Four years spent in the arts, (as they are called in colleges,) is perhaps laying too laborious a foundation. Entering a profession without any previous acquisitions of this kind, is building too bold a superstructure.

Countries wear very different appearances to travelers of different circumstances. A man who is whirled through Europe in a post-chaise, and the pilgrim who walks the grand tour on foot, will form very different conclusions.\*

To see Europe with advantage, a man should appear in various circumstances of fortune; but the experiment would be too dangerous for young men.

There are many things relative to other countries which can be learned to more advantage at home; their laws and policies are among the number.

The greatest advantages which result to youth from travel, are an easy address, the shaking off national prejudices, and the finding nothing ridiculous in national peculiarities.

The time spent in these acquisitions could have been more usefully employed at home. An education in a college seems therefore preferable.—*Present state of Polite Learning.* 1759.

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT UNIVERSITIES.

We attribute to universities either too much or too little. Some assert that they are the only proper places to advance learning; while others deny even their utility in forming an education. Both are erroneous.

Learning is most advanced in populous cities, where chance often conspires with industry to promote it; where the members of this large university, if I may so call it, catch manners as they rise; study life, not logic, and have the world for correspondents.

The greatest number of universities have ever been founded in times of the greatest ignorance.

New improvements in learning are seldom adopted in colleges until admitted everywhere else. And this is right: we should always be cautious of teaching the rising generation uncertainties for truth. Thus, though the professors in universities have been too frequently found to oppose the advancement of learning, yet, when once established, they are the properest persons to diffuse it.

\* In the first edition our author added, *Haud inexpertus loquer*; for he traveled through France, &c., on foot. In his sketch of Baron Holberg, he gives an example of the advantages which may be derived by even a poor student from foreign travel.

" This was, perhaps, one of the most extraordinary personages that has done honor to the present century. His being the son of a private sentinel did not abate the ardor of his ambition, for he learned to read, though without a master. Upon the death of his father, being left entirely destitute, he was involved in all that distress which is common among the poor, and of which the great have scarcely any idea. However, though only a boy of nine years old, he still persisted in pursuing his studies, traveled about from school to school, and begged his learning and his bread. When at the age of seventeen, instead of applying himself to any of the lower occupations, which seem best adapted to such circumstances, he was resolved to travel for improvement from Norway, the place of his birth, to Copenhagen, the capital city of Denmark. He lived there by teaching French, at the same time avoiding no opportunity of improvement that his scanty funds could permit. But his ambition was not to be restrained, or his thirst of knowledge satisfied, until he had seen the world. Without money, recommendations, or friends, he undertook to set out upon his travels, and make the tour of Europe on foot. A good voice, and a trifling skill in music, were the only finances he had to support an undertaking so extensive; so he traveled by day, and at night sung at the doors of peasants' houses to get himself a lodging. In this manner, while yet very young, Holberg passed through France, Germany, and Holland; and coming over to England, took up his residence for two years in the university of Oxford. Here he subsisted by teaching French and music, and wrote his universal history, his earliest, but worst performance. Furnished with all the learning of Europe, he at last thought proper to return to Copenhagen, where his ingenious productions quickly gained him that favor he deserved.<sup>12</sup>

Teaching by lecture, as at Edinburgh, may make men scholars, if they think proper; but instructing by examination, as at Oxford, will make them so often against their inclination.

Edinburgh only disposes the student to receive learning; Oxford often makes him actually learned.

In a word, were I poor, I should send my son to Leyden or Edinburgh, though the annual expense in each, particularly in the first, is very great. Were I rich, I would send him to one of our own universities. By an education received in the first, he has the best likelihood of living; by that received in the latter, he has the best chance of becoming great.

We have of late heard much of the necessity of studying oratory. Vespasian was the first who paid professors of rhetoric for publicly instructing youth at Rome. However, those pedants never made an orator.

The best orations that ever were spoken were pronounced in the parliaments of King Charles the First. These men never studied the rules of oratory.

Mathematics are, perhaps, too much studied at our universities. This seems a science to which the meanest intellects are equal.\* I forget who it is that says, "All men might understand mathematics, if they would."

The most methodical manner of lecturing, whether on morals or nature, is, first rationally to explain, and then produce the experiment. The most instructive method is to show the experiment first; curiosity is then excited, and attention awakened to every subsequent deduction. Hence it is evident, that in a well formed education, a course of history should ever precede a course of ethics.

The sons of our nobility are permitted to enjoy greater liberties in our universities than those of private men. I should blush to ask the men of learning and virtue who preside in our seminaries, the reason of such a prejudicial distinction. Our youth should there be inspired with a love of philosophy; and the first maxim among philosophers is, that merit only makes distinction.

Whence has proceeded the vain magnificence of expensive architecture in our colleges? Is it that men study to more advantage in a palace than in a cell? One single performance of taste or genius confers more real honors on its parent university, than all the labors of the chisel.

Surely pride itself has dictated to the fellows of our colleges the absurd passion of being attended at meals, and on other public occasions, by those poor men who, willing to be scholars, come in upon some charitable foundation. It implies a contradiction, for men to be at once learning the liberal arts, and at the same time treated as slaves; at once studying freedom, and practicing servitude.

\* This is partly true, but not to the extent which is implied in our author's general assertion. The elements of the science may certainly be acquired without any extraordinary share of intellect; but surely distinguished proficiency in the higher branches of mathematics implies something more than the industrious efforts of the "meanest intellects." Goldsmith himself was a very indifferent mathematician; and this will perhaps account sufficiently for his attempt to underrate the importance of the science, and his wish to consider its acquisition as the despicable triumph of plodding mediocrity.—Bain.

For a full and able discussion of the claims of mathematics in a course of liberal studies, see Sir William Hamilton's *Miscellanies*.

## XI. SAMUEL JOHNSON

THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION AND CONDUCT.

Gathered from his Conversations reported by Boswell.

### OPINION ON HIS OWN EDUCATION.

JOHNSON himself began to learn Latin with Mr. Hawkins, usher, or under-master of Litchfield school, "A man (said he) very skillful in his little way."—With him he continued two years, and then rose to be under the care of Mr. Hunter, the head-master, who, according to his account, "was very severe, and wrong-headed severely. He used (said he) to beat us unmercifully; and he did not distinguish between ignorance and negligence; for he would beat a boy equally for not knowing a thing, as for neglecting to know it. He would ask a boy a question; and if he did not answer him, he would beat him, without considering whether he had an opportunity of knowing how to answer it; for instance, he would call upon a boy and ask him in Latin for a candlestick, which the boy could not expect to be asked. Now, Sir, if a boy could answer every question, there would be no need of a master to teach him."

Johnson, however, was very sensible how much he owed to Mr. Hunter. Mr. Langton one day asked him how he acquired so accurate a knowledge of Latin, in which he was thought not to be exceeded by any man of his time. He said, "My master whipt me very well. Without that, Sir, I should have done nothing." He also told Mr. Langton, that while Hunter was flogging his boys unmercifully, he used to say, "And this I do to save you from the gallows." Johnson, upon all occasions, expressed his approbation of enforcing instruction by means of the rod. "I would rather have the rod the general terror of all, to make them learn, than tell a child, if you do thus, or thus, you will be more esteemed than your brothers or sisters. The rod produces an effect that terminates in itself. A child is afraid of being whipped, and gets his task; and there's an end on't; whereas, by exciting emulation and comparisons of superiority, you lay the foundation of lasting mischief; you make brothers and sisters hate each other."

### INFLUENCE OF EDUCATION.

He allowed very great influence to education. "I do not deny but there is some original difference in minds; but it is nothing in comparison of what is formed by education. We may instance the science of numbers, which all minds are equally capable of attaining; yet we find a prodigious difference in the powers of different men, in that respect, after they are grown up, because their minds have been more or less exercised in it; and I think the same cause will explain the difference of excellence in other things, gradations admitting always some difference in the first principles."



## SCHEME\* FOR THE CLASSES OF A GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

"When the introduction, or formation of nouns and verbs, is perfectly mastered, let them learn

Corderius, by Mr. Clarke, beginning at the same time to translate out of the introduction, that by this means they may learn the syntax. Then let them proceed to

Erasmus, with an English translation, by the same author.

The second class learns Eutropius and Cornelius Nepos, or Justin, with the translation.

N. B. The first class gets for their part every morning the rules which they have learned before, and in the afternoon learns the Latin rules of the nouns and verbs.

They are examined in the rules which they have learned every Thursday and Saturday.

The second class does the same whilst they are in Eutropius; afterwards their part is in the irregular nouns and verbs, and in the rules for making and scanning verses. They are examined as the first.

The third class learns Ovid's *Metamorphoses* in the morning, and *Cæsar's Commentaries* in the afternoon.

Practice in the Latin rules till they are perfect in them; afterwards in Mr. Leed's *Greek Grammar*. Examined as before.

Afterwards they proceed to *Virgil*, beginning at the same time to write themes and verses and to learn *Greek*; from thence passing on to *Horace*, &c., as shall seem most proper."

## SCHEME FOR THE STUDIES OF A STUDENT FITTING FOR THE UNIVERSITY.

"I know not well what books to direct you to, because you have not informed me what study you will apply yourself to. I believe it will be most for your advantage to apply yourself wholly to the languages, till you go to the University. The Greek authors I think it best for you to read are these:

Cebes.	} Attic.
Ælian.	
Lucian by Leeds.	
Xenophon.	
Homer.	Ionic.
Theocritus.	Doric.
Euripides.	Attic and Doric.

Thus you will be tolerably skilled in all the dialects, beginning with the Attic, to which the rest must be referred.

In the study of Latin, it is proper not to read the latter authors, till you are well versed in those of the purist ages; as *Terence*, *Tully*, *Cæsar*, *Sallust*, *Nepos*, *Velleius Paterculus*, *Virgil*, *Horace*, *Phædrus*.

The greatest and most necessary task still remains, to attain a habit of expression, without which knowledge is of little use. This is necessary in Latin, and more necessary in English; and can only be acquired by a daily imitation of the best and correctest authors."

## STUDY OF GREEK AND LATIN.

"Dr. Johnson and I one day took a sculler at the Temple stairs, and set out

\* Mr. Croker in his edition of *Boswell's Johnson*—characterizes this scheme as a "Crude sketch," and doubts whether it contains Dr. Johnson's mature and general sentiments on even the narrow branch of education to which it refers.

for Greenwich. I asked him if he really thought a knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages an essential requisite to a good education. JOHNSON. "Most certainly, Sir; for those who know them have a very great advantage over those who do not. Nay, sir, it is wonderful what a difference learning makes upon people even in the common intercourse of life, which does not appear to be much connected with it." "And yet (said Mr. B.) people go through the world very well, and carry on the business of life to good advantage, without learning." J. "Why, Sir, that may be true in cases where learning can not possibly be of any use; for instance, this boy rows us as well without learning as if he could sing the song of Orpheus to the Argonauts, who were the first sailors." He then called to the boy, "What would you give, my lad, to know about the Argonauts?" "Sir, (said the boy,) I would give what I have." Johnson was much pleased with the answer, and we gave him a double fare. The Doctor then turning to Mr. B. said, "Sir, a desire of knowledge is the natural feeling of mankind; and every human being, whose mind is not debauched, will be willing to give all that he has to get knowledge."

#### VALUE OF KNOWLEDGE TO THE WORKING CLASSES.

To Mr. Langton when about to establish a school upon his estate, it had been suggested, that it might have a tendency to make the people less industrious. "No, sir, (said Johnson.) While learning to read and write is a distinction, the few who have that distinction may be the less inclined to work; but when everybody learns to read and write, it is no longer a distinction. A man who has a laced waistcoat is too fine a man to work; but if everybody had laced waistcoats, we should have people working in laced waistcoats. There are no people whatever more industrious, none who work more than our manufacturers; yet they have all learnt to read and write. Sir, you must not neglect doing a thing immediately good, from fear of remote evil, from fear of its being abused. A man who has candles may sit up too late, which he would not do if he had not candles; but nobody will deny that the art of making candles, by which light is continued to us beyond the time that the sun gives us light, is a valuable art, and ought to be preserved."

On another occasion he said, "Where there is no education, as in savage countries, men will have the upper hand of women. Bodily strength, no doubt contributes to this; but it would be so, exclusive of that; for it is mind that always governs. When it comes to dry understanding, man has the better."

Mr. Boswell observed, that he was well assured, that the people of Otaheite who have the bread tree, the fruit of which serves them for bread, laughed heartily when they were informed of the tedious process necessary with us to have bread;—plowing, sowing, harrowing, reaping, threshing, grinding, baking. JOHNSON. "Why, sir, all ignorant savages will laugh when they are told of the advantages of civilized life. Were you to tell men who live without houses, how we pile brick upon brick, and rafter upon rafter, and that after a house is raised to a certain height, a man tumbles off a scaffold, and breaks his neck, he would laugh heartily at our folly in building; but it does not follow that men are better without houses. No, sir (holding up a slice of a good loaf) that is better than the bread tree."

Goldsmith once attempted to maintain, perhaps from affectation of paradox, "that knowledge was not desirable on its own account, for it often was a source

of unhappiness." "Why, sir, (said Johnson) that knowledge may in some cases produce unhappiness, I allow. But upon the whole, knowledge, *per se*, is certainly an object which every man would wish to attain, although perhaps, he may not take the trouble necessary for attaining it. Much might be done if a man put his whole mind to a particular object. By doing so, Norton made himself the great lawyer that he was allowed to be."

He one day observed, "All knowledge is of itself of some value. There is nothing so minute or inconsiderable, that I would not rather know it than not. In the same manner, all power of whatever sort, is of itself desirable. A man would not submit to him a ruffe of his wife, or his wife's maid; but if a mere wish could obtain it, he would rather wish to be able to hem a ruffe."

#### PUBLIC SCHOOLS (THE GREAT BOARDING SCHOOLS) AND PRIVATE TUITION AT HOME COMPARED.

Of education at the Public Schools, Johnson displayed the advantages and disadvantages in a luminous manner; but his arguments preponderated much in favor of the benefit which a boy of good parts might receive at one of them.

"At a great school there is all the splendor and illumination of many minds; the radiance of all is centered in each, or at least is reflected upon each. But we must own that neither a dull boy, nor an idle boy, will do so well at a great school as at a private one. For at a great school, there are always boys enough to do easily, who are sufficient to keep up the credit of the school; and after whipping being tried to no purpose, the dull or idle boys are left at the end of the class, having the appearance of going through the course, but learning nothing at all. Such boys may do well at a private school, where constant attention is paid to them, and they are watched. So that the question of public or private education is not properly a general one, but whether one or the other is best for my son."

At another time he said, "There is now less flogging in our great schools than formerly, but then less is learned there; so that what the boys get at one end they lose at the other." Yet more, he observed, was learned in public than in private schools, from emulation; "there is the collision of mind with mind, or the radiance of many minds pointing to one center."

#### REFINEMENTS AND NOVELTIES IN EDUCATION.

"I hate by-roads in education. Education is as well known, and has long been as well known, as ever it can be. Endeavoring to make children prematurely wise is useless labor. Suppose they have more knowledge at five or six years than other children, what use can be made of it? It will be lost before it is wanted, and the waste of so much time and labor of the teacher can never be repaid. Too much is expected from precocity, and too little performed. Miss ——— was an instance of early cultivation; but in what did it terminate? In marrying a little Presbyterian parson, who keeps an infant boarding school, so that all her employment now is,

"To suckle fools, and chronicle small beer."

She tells the children, 'this is a cat, and that is a dog with four legs and a tail; see there! you are much better than a cat or a dog, for you can speak.' I am always for getting a boy forward in his learning; for that is a sure good. I would let him at first read any English book which happens to engage his attention; because you have done a great deal when you have brought him to have entertainment from a book. He'll get better books afterward."

Johnson advised Mr. Boswell not to *refine* in the education of his children. "Life will not bear refinement; you must do as other people do. Above all accustom your children constantly to tell the truth; if a thing happened at one window, and they, when relating it, say that it happened at another, do not let it pass, but instantly check them; you do not know where deviation from truth will end." BOSWELL. "It may come to the door: and when once an account is at all varied in one circumstance, it may by degrees be varied so as to be totally different from what really happened." A lady in the company, whose fancy was impatient of the rein, sidged at this, and ventured to say, "Nay, this is too much. If Mr. Johnson should forbid me to drink tea I would comply, as I should feel the restraint only twice a day; but little variations in narrative must happen a thousand times a day, if one is not perpetually watching." JOHNSON. "Well, Madam, and you ought to be perpetually watching. It is more from carelessness about truth than from intentional lying that there is so much falsehood in the world."

Talking of instruction, "People have now-a-days got a strange opinion that every thing should be taught by lectures. Now I can not see that lectures can do so much good as reading the books from which the lectures are taken. I know nothing that can be best taught by lectures, except where experiments are to be shown. You may teach chemistry by lectures; you might teach making of shoes by lectures!"

"Education in England has been in danger of being hurt by two of its greatest men, Milton and Locke. Milton's plan is impracticable, and I suppose has never been tried; Locke's I fancy, has been tried often enough, but is very imperfect; it gives too much on one side, and too little on the other: it gives too little to literature."

#### CORPORAL PUNISHMENT BY THE SCHOOLMASTER.

The master of a public school at Campbell-town, in Scotland, had been suspended from his office, on a charge against him of having used immoderate and cruel correction. Mr. Boswell was engaged to plead the cause of the master, and consulted Dr. Johnson on the subject, who made the following observations: "The charge is, that he has used immoderate and cruel correction. Correction in itself, is not cruel; children, being not reasonable, can be governed only by fear. To impress this fear, is therefore one of the first duties of those who have the care of children. It is the duty of a parent, and has never been thought inconsistent with parental tenderness. It is the duty of a master, who is in the highest exaltation when he is *loco parentis*. Yet, as good things become evil by excess, correction, by being immoderate, may become cruel. But when is correction immoderate? When it is more frequent or more severe than is required *ad monendum et docendum*, for reformation and instruction. No severity is cruel which obstinacy makes necessary; for the greatest cruelty would be to desist, and leave the scholar too careless for instruction, and too much hardened for reproof. Locke, in his treatise of Education, mentions a mother with applause, who whipped an infant eight times before she had subdued it; for had she stopped at the seventh act of correction, her daughter, says he, would have been ruined. The degrees of obstinacy in young minds are very different; as different must be the degrees of persevering severity. A stubborn scholar must be corrected till he is subdued. The discipline of a school is military. There must either be unbounded licence or absolute authority. The master who pun-

ishes, not only consults the future happiness of him who is the immediate subject of correction, but he propagates obedience through the whole school, and establishes regularity by exemplary justice. The victorious obstinacy of a single boy would make his future endeavors of reformation or instruction totally ineffectual: obstinacy therefore must never be victorious. Yet it is well known, that there sometimes occurs a sullen and hardy resolution, that laughs at all common punishment, and bids defiance to all common degrees of pain. Correction must be proportioned to occasions. The flexible will be reformed by gentle discipline, and the refractory must be subdued by harsher methods. The degrees of scholastic, as of military punishment, no stated rules can ascertain. It must be enforced till it overpowers temptation; till stubbornness becomes flexible, and perverseness regular. Custom and reason have, indeed, set some bounds to scholastic penalties: the schoolmaster inflicts no capital punishments, nor enforces his edicts by either death or mutilation. The civil law has wisely determined, that a master who strikes at a scholar's eye shall be considered as criminal. But punishments, however severe, that produce no lasting evil, may be just and reasonable, because they may be necessary. Such have been the punishments used by the schoolmaster accused. No scholar has gone from him either blind or lame, or with any of his limbs or powers injured or impaired. They were irregular, and he punished them; they were obstinate, and he enforced his punishment. But, however provoked, he never exceeded the limits of moderation, for he inflicted nothing beyond present pain; and how much of that was required, no man is so little able to determine as those who have determined against him—the parents of the offenders. It has been said, that he used unprecedented and improper instruments of correction. Of this accusation the meaning is not very easy to be found. No instrument of correction is more proper than another, but as it is better adapted to produce present pain without lasting mischief. Whatever were his instruments, no lasting mischief has ensued; and therefore, however unusual, in hands so cautious they were proper. It has been objected, that he admits the charge of cruelty, by producing no evidence to confute. Let it be considered, that his scholars are either dispersed at large in the world or continue to inhabit the place in which they were bred. Those who are dispersed can not be found; those who remain are the sons of his persecutors, and are not likely to support a man to whom their fathers are enemies. If it be supposed that the enmity of their fathers proves the justice of the charge, it must be considered how often experience shows us, that men who are angry on one ground will accuse on another; with how little kindness in a town of low trade, a man who lives by learning is regarded; and how implicitly, where the inhabitants are not very rich, a rich man is hearkened to and followed. In a place like Campbell-town, it is easy for one of the principal inhabitants to make a party. It is easy for that party to heat themselves with imaginary grievances. It is easy for them to oppress a man poorer than themselves; and natural to assert the dignity of riches, by persisting in oppression."

Upon the same subject, Mr. Boswell also observed, "It is a very delicate matter to interfere between a master and his scholars; nor do I see how you can fix the degree of severity that a master may use." JOHNSON. "Why, sir, till you can fix the degree of obstinacy and negligence of the scholars, you can not fix the degree of severity of the master. Severity must be continued until obstinacy be subdued and negligence be cured."

(To be continued.)

## XII. BERNARD OVERBERG.

BERNARD OVERBERG, whose life is a beautiful illustration of the value of a devout and self-denying teacher of teachers, was born in the village of Hoekel, in the province of Westphalia, Prussia, in May 1754. His father was a pedlar, but gave his son the best opportunities of education in the village school, and afterwards in the Gymnasium at Rheine, for which he was fitted by a clergyman in a neighboring town, to whom he walked every day in spite of bad roads and weather. As the development of his faculties was not rapid, and his attainments on entering the Gymnasium were not up to the average standard, he was put near the foot of his class. This only stimulated his industry, and at the end of the first year, he was before all his companions in religious knowledge, correct conduct, and Latin, and equal to the best in other studies. After finishing his gymnasial course, he commenced his philosophical and theological studies in the Catholic Episcopal Seminary in Munster, paying his way by his earnings as tutor in a gentleman's family in the town. In 1780, he was ordained to the ministry, and first officiated as priest at Voltlage, within a few miles of his birthplace.

In 1780, he became officiating vicar of Everswinkel, and many even yet can remember his powers as a spiritual guide and teacher, and the blessings which attended him. His chief anxiety was for the religious education of the children of the parish, and this at his request was wholly given up to him by the rector. In three years his manner of teaching became so perfect, that the minister Prince Furstenberg was induced to think of appointing him to the normal school\* at Munster. But first he determined to hear the teaching himself, and getting into his carriage on Sunday, when he knew Overberg would catechise, he told the post boys to bring him to Everswinkel exactly at two o'clock. He thus got into the church unobserved, and listening unseen, found his expectation exceeded, and therefore offered the situation immediately. Overberg's disposition and humility inclined him to remain amongst the countrymen who were attached to him, but the offer was really a command from his vicar-general, (which Furstenberg then was,) and he had only to comply. On being desired to name his own salary, his modesty asked only for 200 thalers, (about \$150,) with board and lodging in the episcopal seminary at Munster. He entered this, March, 1783, and here he died as principal, in 1826.

The leading object of his intercourse with all, both old and young, with whom he came in contact, was to implant and cultivate a spiritual principle; a principle coming from God's spirit and continually nourished by it alone, whilst he believed the means for obtaining this to be clear and impressive views of the truth and power of the Christian religion laid deeply in the character during childhood. The relation and intercourse between God and man either by natural or revealed means was the great object of his instruction, and being so pervaded by this godliness himself, his pupils became in some degree warmed by it. "Only that which comes from the heart can reach the heart," was a favorite saying of his; and all who have heard him, agree in stating that a tone of cheerful piety seemed to



accompany the studies, even the common reading, writing, arithmetic, mensuration, &c., whilst the intellectual faculties thus developed were more easily brought under the power of the will, when the moral faculties were in healthy exercise. Catechetical as his instruction generally was, he avoided the extreme in which it is now used and its attendant error of cultivating the memory of children at the expense of their reflecting, and still more, their moral powers. He never began with abstract truths of religion, &c., but with the imagination and actual experience of the children; so that the answer was not mere words or notions of the memory, but the enlargement of existing ideas. His object was not so much to give information, as to give such information and such views of things, as would draw out all the good and amiable points of the character, and repress the contrary.

The office of schoolmaster in the district of Munster, was at that time performed in the more populous parishes by men who, intending to be clergymen, had gone through a part of the studies at the gymnasium, and then stopped for want of money, talents, or other causes; but in the smaller parishes and scattered country places, it was performed by laborers, who, teaching in winter, returned to their work in summer. By far the greatest number of them were, of course, very ignorant and unfit for any intelligent teaching; but their pay was poor in proportion, and many, having no room, made use of some bakehouse, or even an old chapel without a stove, in the cold nights of winter. To tempt them to an internal improvement, Furstenberg began with an external one; and for this, commissioned Overberg to visit all the village schools of the district. Some of the bad, superfluous, and unlicensed were closed, and instead of two or three inconvenient, one more convenient erected; then every schoolmaster who offered himself for examination, and passed it creditably, had a yearly salary secured him of twenty, thirty, or even forty thalers, (each about 75 cents,) according to the population of his parish. The examination was to be repeated every three years, and they who wished to improve themselves were advised to attend the normal school at Munster. The expenses of this attendance were all to be paid for them; and in order that there might be no material omission of their school duties, the attendance at the normal school was restricted to the usual time of their vacation, from August 21, to the beginning of November. On this being settled, from twenty to thirty old schoolmasters attended Overberg, and most thoroughly exercised his patience and charity, by their indescribable helplessness and incapacity for learning; from nine to twelve, and from two to five, he instructed them in the principles of teaching, in religion, in Scripture history, in reading, writing, and arithmetic. He carefully prepared himself for this, by one and a half hour's study; and he spent the rest of the day in reading with the most backward. Hopeless as all this trouble seemed at first, in a few years the result was rich in blessings.

As was mentioned in the introduction, Overberg's zeal for the welfare of the ignorant poor produced in many others a similar feeling. Pupils soon came to his lectures whose fervent wish was to become efficient Christian teachers. The example of these influenced some of the more indolent; and many of the schoolmasters attended him, not only as long as government paid their expenses, but for many years afterwards. Ignorant and unpolished as were the greatest number of them at first, they scarcely ever required a reproof from him, feeling respect and affection when they saw his estimable character shine forth in its simplicity and friendliness. Their studies commenced with prayer; and the duller heart must have been, in some degree, moved when Overberg entered and began, "Come, Holy Ghost;" whilst his simplicity of manner, his want of all appearance of study or learning, with his power and fervor, struck even those most accustomed to preaching. The source from whence he obtained all this may be seen from a rule in his diary.

"Let in every thing, 1st, the love of God be the moving principle; 2d, the will of God the guiding clue; 3d, the glory of God the end. When this is done, then wilt thou walk before God and be perfect." Or more concisely, "Do and suffer every thing from love to God, according to God's will and God's glory." Again, November 6, 1791, at the end of the course, having thanked God for his support, &c., he adds, "In previous years I felt more ashamed, having more reliance on my own powers, and more inclination to the vanity of pleasing men. This year

Thou hast given me a stronger feeling of my weakness, more confidence in Thee, and greater desire to please Thee only."

His extreme care in previous preparation, even for teaching the children of the free school, will be seen by a subsequent extract; and the following shows clearly the great conscientiousness with which he performed the details of his daily instruction, and particularly that of the young communicants.

"April 12, 1790. I thank Thee, O Father in heaven, for the strength Thou gavest me when instructing the children yesterday for the first communion; support, O Jesus, those whom Thou hast thus fed with thy flesh and blood; supply by thy grace what through my fault or theirs was displeasing in their hearts to Thee; and help me to avoid those faults in future. I began too late to watch their conduct, in order to know their hearts, and so prepare them for thy advent. I persuaded myself I could make amends by my instruction, though this evidently requires observation of the character before. Thou knowest, indeed, that I often strove to instruct them from the purest motives; but how often, when teaching, did vanity come in, and how oft get command over me! I frequently observed this at the time, and, struggling against it, got confused, obscure, and injured the children in consequence. Often, when led captive by vanity, I said something or left something unsaid, which I would not have done, had thy glory and the salvation of the children been my sole object; and this was particularly the case when strangers were present.

"Writing out as much as possible previously was some safeguard against this folly, though it took away from the freedom and more touching simplicity of the lecture.

"My getting confused and annoyed when the instruction did not go on as I wished, showed me what mixed motives yet governed me; my satisfaction depended not so much on my own conduct, as on the result of the satisfaction it gave to others; and although I struggled against all of this, it was not so earnestly as I ought to have done. O Lord Jesus, have mercy upon me, and blot out all my misdeeds! Make me a clean heart, and so shall I teach thy babes thy way!

"In order to avoid these faults in future, I will now take down the names of those who will probably attend the communion next year; so that I may observe the state of their heart and mind, during the whole time. I will pray for them; and when I think it will do good, I will mention them in the public prayers of the school. But, Lord, how can I have this singleness of view? Thou must give it, and the strength to act accordingly; I will fight, unwilling though I be, and do Thou grant that I may endure the fight to the end!"

The above applies to the Lorraine free school, to which he paid constant attention when conducting the normal school. But to recur to his plan of teaching in this, we may remark his practice of explaining and illustrating, by examples, the principles of moral philosophy on which teachers ought to proceed. His power of illustrative narration being very great, he could, when necessary, fill up the details of the picture so faithfully, that every one entered into it, and would probably recollect some example from their own experience. Once, when illustrating some error in teaching, an old schoolmaster, struck with the ideal picture, cried out in low German, "Oh, Mr. Overberg, that is just what is done amongst us!" Frequently his pictures were highly comical, but respect for him was such as to prevent any one giving way to their feelings. In short, such was the varied talent shown in his lectures, that persons quite indifferent to the subject would crowd to hear them.

Overberg was an admirer of nature in the highest and noblest sense, and in the wonders of creation he saw a representation of the Deity. Every leaf, every flower was to him a proof of the power, and goodness, and wisdom of God, and he must have accustomed himself to raise his views from the creature to the Creator from his earliest years, it having, as he said, become a second nature to him. He earnestly impressed upon the teachers the pious consideration of the works of creation, giving them directions for it, and urging them to turn the attention of the children to them as early as possible. He thought that a teacher in the country ought occasionally to give his lessons in the open air, and so teach the children to observe for themselves the end for which every thing is made, and how perfectly

it is adapted to it; whilst views of the power and wisdom of God should thus be brought into lectures on religion.

Valuable, however, as was the information given to the pupils, it was not more so than the example of friendliness, humility, and patience which Overberg showed toward themselves; as when having twice clearly explained some very simple thing, he would quietly go over it again, if the answer of the pupil made it probable it was not clearly comprehended, and thus the other pupils would see in practice what is meant by adapting a subject to the powers of comprehension of the hearer without omitting any principle.

The instruction was always closed by one of the church hymns to which he was very partial, and professed even in one of his latter years to have been much benefited by the German hymn in the evening service of a village church. "Were I an officiating priest, (said he,) I would always use such a German litany instead of a Latin vesper. How impressive is that one beginning 'Have pity, Lord,' &c."

At the conclusion of the course, the students were examined, and provided with situations, and subsequently promoted according to their merit.

Thus was he, under God, not merely the founder but the supporter of a system of education rich in blessings to his country, but besides this he had also the peculiar merit of educating a class of female teachers to which probably there is nothing similar elsewhere. Young women, not from necessity but piety, attended some of his lectures in the normal school, and his catechising in the free school, and the majority resisting subsequent temptations to give up their labors, continued devoted to them through life. These were appointed to different girls' schools, and the results were so good, and subsequently so notorious, that many of them were sent for into other countries, whilst others as readers or governesses became blessings to private families. He used to say that women made better teachers than men, and he regretted exceedingly that there was no normal school established for them at the same time with that at Büren.

His instruction in the Lorraine cloister school consisted in some hours being given three times a week to religion, Bible history, and arithmetic; to this, and particularly to the catechising the children in the church every Sunday, there came persons of all ranks, thinking that they then saw in Overberg a faithful follower of Him who said, "Suffer little children," &c. How important he felt this instruction of the children to be, may be seen from the following extract from his journal:

"January 15, 1790. This morning I went into the school without sufficient preparation. O God! help me to improve in this. It is a delusion to imagine that any thing is more necessary or ought to be preferred to this; want of preparation draws many faults after it, the instruction becomes dry, confused, without point, rambling; hence the children are puzzled, their attention distracted, and the employment becomes disagreeable to them and myself. I must also be very careful not to go too much into details; into too extended views, and become too learned for the little ones; to comprehend and retain one good point is better for them than to hear ten and understand none well, or to miss the most important whilst thinking of the others.

"O God, help me ever more and more to imitate the manner of teaching of thy beloved Son, so divinely simple, short, clear, and easily remembered. Grant, that before I propose any thing to the children, I may ask myself, 'Is it necessary? Is it useful? Is there not something more useful, which ought to be preferred to it? Is it sufficiently comprehensible? What is my object in proposing it? Will it, when known, give them only an appearance of learning, &c.? If so, away with it.'"

"February 7, 1790. Thou art teaching me, O my God, more and more for my own experience, that of myself I can do nothing. When I fear that the teaching which Thou hast committed to me will not go on well, then I am surprised at its success, and the contrary happens when I say, 'this time I shall succeed.' Is not this an intimation from Thee, not to trust on my own strength? May thy grace help me to translate this into practice. O God, how many are thy favors; even to-day I observed that Thou takest away my usual impediment to clear and loud utterance, whenever I have to speak in the church to the children. Ever

grant me, O Lord, the grace, (undeserving though I be, from having so frequently withstood it,) the grace, that in all I do, particularly as regards these children, I may look to thy will alone. O Father, my Father in Christ Jesus, do Thou be with me, that I do not make the instruction of thy little ones needlessly difficult, giving them hard food instead of milk; chaff, instead of corn; attending too much to some, and neglecting others. Thou hast permitted me to enter upon a new way of instruction; if it be not better, if it be not thy will that I should go on in it, do thou call me back; if it be thy will, O make it so clear to me, that I err not, and lead the children into by-paths, from which I must lead them back again. I am unworthy of thy favor, but Thou wilt not turn away from these little ones, sanctified by the blood of thy Son, and hence I rely on thy assistance. May I be wholly thine, and so do more for thy honor and the good of others. Oh, may not the trust which others place in me be disappointed."

Thus did Overberg perform the apparently simple and easy duty of teaching children with a deep and holy earnestness, as in God's sight, and in the strength obtained by prayer. He knew and confessed what an important charge is the education of youth in prayer and filial intercourse with God.

Such was his earnestness in the common daily teaching, and the blessings for which he prayed, attended it, not merely on the sensitive hearts of the young, but it softened also many hardened by age; still his earnestness was doubled when the time for the sacrament drew near. He latterly took down, as we have said before, the names of the probable communicants a year before, and began carefully to observe the state of each, and direct them accordingly; the more immediate instruction was given during an hour and a half daily during Lent, till the Third Sunday after Easter. He then gave them a compendium of the doctrines of Christianity, and to guard himself against digressions, he wrote out his lectures at length daily. These were attended by many adult hearers, particularly of the theological students, many of whom carried away the matter in their note books, however little they might be warmed by all the piety which animated the author. On Thursdays and Sundays during Lent, no strangers were admitted, because these days were devoted to repetition and examination in previous lessons. Besides this public teaching, he instructed, exhorted, and warned them unceasingly in private, according to the character and circumstances of each. He led them as their confessor, to reflect on the truths of salvation, to prayer, and particularly to careful examination of conscience.

From time to time he prayed in the school for these communicants, and as the day approached, he sent for the parents, put before them their duty to their children, particularly that of personal example, and he made them promise to fulfil it. Whilst the children promised in writing that they would walk according to the gospel, avoiding the danger to their faith and virtue, and using the means of grace; for himself, his earnest prayer was that he might be influenced in the selection of candidates, by nothing but their piety, and such was his zeal and anxiety in all this, that he frequently had some illness when it was over.

During the course of the year, after the first sacrament, the communicants were required to go to the Lord's table, from time to time together, and he always prepared them for it.

Thus had he labored in this, and the weekly instruction of the children for twenty-seven years, in the school of the Lorraine cloister; when this was closed, and the school made parochial, and transferred to the parish priest, who relieved him from the labor.

The following is a specimen of his manner of addressing his normal pupils:

MY BELOVED FRIENDS:—If you cherish sentiments of true benevolence, if the welfare of your scholars be of any importance or value to you, engrave deeply on your hearts the recommendations which I am about to address to you, and in the performance of the duties of your vocation, have them constantly presented to your mind.

1. *If you desire to honor God, let there be no levity or carelessness in your conduct.*

You can not use too much caution in this respect in the presence of your pupils; their eyes are always directed to you, and are certainly far more penetrating than is generally imagined. They discover in you faults which you are not conscious of yourself, and these faults often shock them more, and render you more contemptible in their eyes, than other and much greater ones would do in the eyes of men of your own age. Forget yourself but in a single instance, and you may produce on them an impression, deeper than all your good lessons, and all the efforts you have made for them. Be careful, then, even in the smallest things, as much as possible, not only not to give them a bad example, but even an example which can not in all points be safely followed; for your example acts with great power on their character; it may produce immense good, or infinitely greater evil. Children pay more attention to the example of their superiors than to their lessons, however good and salutary they may be; and since they have not discernment to distinguish a slight and very excusable fault from one much greater, or a weakness natural to humanity from an action intentionally bad, they are often less shocked at the last than at the first. It is for this reason that we never can be too prudent in the presence of such spectators and such judges. It is precisely in this company, more than in any other, that it is necessary to be most watchful over one's self; and their society is, consequently, an excellent means of self-improvement. Avoid, therefore, not only those vices which would cover you with shame in the eyes of all good men, but also those defects and weaknesses which you would not like your pupils to imitate, if even your equals would not notice them.

**2. Teach, on all occasions, not only by your words, but by your conduct and habits.**

Instruction thus given, is for your pupils, not only the most efficacious, but also the most easy. Thus, would you accustom them to neatness? let them see in you this good habit, while receiving your instructions on this subject; if you are yourself slovenly in your clothes and in your person, what will they think of your lessons on neatness? Would you form them to continuous activity? never be idle yourself; work cheerfully; and never let them see you without occupation. Would you introduce order in your school? never let them see any disorder, either in your own person or your affairs. Let good order be obvious in the class, in your habitation, in your household. He who throws every thing into confusion, and who, when he wants any thing, has sometimes to seek it in one corner, and sometimes in another, gives to his scholars a very sorry example of good order. Would you wish to teach them truth and fidelity? never let any thing contrary to truth proceed from your own mouth, even in playfulness, lest this playfulness be misunderstood; never make a promise or a threat which you can not or will not accomplish; never leave a promise or a threat unperformed which you have made unconditionally, lest a motive should be attributed to you which would place you in the eyes of your pupils in the shade of suspicion of want of integrity.

**3 Inspire in your pupils obedience to, and respect for, their relations and their superiors; and take particular care not to weaken the consideration which children ought to have for their parents.**

Do not those tutors commit a great sin, who never display more eloquence than when they chatter in the presence of your pupils on the awkwardness and ignorance of men of a certain age, or of old men, because they have not learned this or that thing which is now taught at the schools? By acting thus, they not only deprive their children of all respect for their parents, which leads to the most fatal consequences, but they also inspire them with an insupportable pride, which makes them despise all that may be said or done by those older than themselves.

**4. Let the fear of God be visible in your actions, and in your manner on all occasions, especially in teaching religion.**

Manifest always the most serious displeasure when your pupils say or do any thing contrary to the holy reverence which we owe to God, and take care yourself not to pronounce the name of God or of your Saviour with levity. Seek to have your own heart deeply impressed when you speak of truths of great importance; for example, of the paternal goodness of God toward men; of his mercy

to sinners; in the sufferings and death of Christ; of the obedience and love which led him to submit to these sufferings and this death; of the favor which he has procured for us; of the ordinances which he has instituted in remembrance of his death; of the great rewards and terrible punishments of eternity, &c. Your emotion will manifest itself in your exterior deportment; it will render your words impressive, and will awaken like emotions in the hearts of your auditors. A simple tear which may start in the eye of the master, and which is not the effect of art, but the involuntary expression of a heart truly softened and penetrated by the importance of the subject, acts very powerfully on the hearts of children, and often produces in them impressions and resolutions which the most lively representations could not have effected.

5. *By active compassion for the misfortunes of your neighbors, you can excite in the children pity, and teach them the right manner of sympathizing with their fellow creatures, in joy and in adversity.*

Your manner of conducting yourself toward your pupils, will contribute much toward making them either courteous and charitable men, or morose and indifferent to their duties. If you act toward them as a good father; if all your conduct shows them your love; that you labor with all your power for their real good, and to be useful to them as much as possible; and (because you love them) that you willingly render them services, and procure pleasures for them, (which may be often in themselves the merest trifles,) you will awaken in many of them, love, and the desire to oblige, for *love is contagious*. They will learn also from you, to render voluntary service to their companions and to others; this will be the result of your example. *In a word, each virtue will appear to them more amiable, and more worthy of being imitated; and you will be more sure than ever, that they will seek to acquire it, if it be manifest in your conduct.*

Oh, you can do much, yes, very much, to form the hearts of your pupils, if you will instruct them at the same time by your life and by your precepts. The best of opportunities is offered to you; they are confided to your care *precisely* at the age when the instinct of curiosity and imitation acts with the greatest force; when you have them daily with you, and can thus instill gradually according to their capacity, good doctrines and good sentiments. *A drop which falls incessantly wears the hardest stones*; and much more easily can impressions be made on the unformed characters of children. The faults which perhaps they may have when you enter into relation with them, are not so deeply rooted that they can not be removed, if you give to the work attention and zeal. You can really produce more substantial good in their hearts, than their pastors can at a more advanced age. To destroy rooted vices is a difficult task, and often impossible to be accomplished, whatever efforts may be tried; but to prevent them, to stifle them in their commencement, to fashion the mind when it is still pliant; this is a much easier work, and one which, by the blessing of God, will succeed, if the master teach by his actions, as well as by precept. Do not shrink from the task; it is the most noble, the most respectable, the most imposing that you can undertake.

Do not allow yourself to be frightened or arrested in a work so excellent, by the difficulties which it presents, many of which exist only in your imagination. The duty to which I now exhort you, that of leading a life irreproachable and edifying before God and before the children, is a duty obligatory upon you as Christians: it ought to be of importance to you even if you should not be schoolmasters; but as *such*, as directors of youth, who are to be formed by your teaching and by your example, you are *doubly* engaged to this duty.

If, then, you love yourselves; if you love these little ones confided to your care, and placed under your responsibility; if you love Him who is their Saviour and yours, follow also his example on this point, teaching like him by words and actions; be to your pupils on all occasions, "a pattern of good works." (Titus ii. 7.) "Let your light so shine before them, that they, seeing your good works, may do likewise, and with you, glorify your Father who is in heaven."

We add a few suggestions in the same spirit by Zeller, and Beckendorf—translated from "Le Miroir des Instituteurs, ou Conseils sur l'Education."



### XIII. THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION.

BY HERBERT SPENCER.

(Continued from page 512, No. XXVII.)

#### III. INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION AND STUDIES.

##### DESIRE OF OLD METHODS.

1. The suppression of every error is commonly followed by a temporary ascendancy of the contrary one; and it so happened, that after the ages when physical development alone was aimed at, there came an age when culture of the mind was the sole solicitude—when children had lesson-books put before them at between two and three years old—when school-hours were protracted, and the getting of knowledge was thought the one thing needful. As, further, it usually happens, that after one of these reactions the next advance is achieved by co-ordinating the antagonist errors, and perceiving that they are opposite sides of one truth; so we are now coming to the conviction that body and mind must both be cared for, and the whole being unfolded. The forcing system has been in great measure given up, and precocity is discouraged. People are beginning to see that the first requisite to success in life, is to be a good animal. The best brain is found of little service, if there be not enough vital energy to work it; and hence to obtain the one by sacrificing the source of the other, is now considered a folly—a folly which the eventual failure of juvenile prodigies constantly illustrates. Thus we are discovering the wisdom of the saying, that one secret in education is "to know how wisely to lose time."

The once universal practice of learning by rote, is daily falling more into discredit. All modern authorities condemn the old mechanical way of teaching the alphabet. The multiplication table is now frequently taught experimentally. In the acquirement of languages, the grammar-school plan is being superseded by plans based on the spontaneous process followed by the child in gaining its mother tongue.

Along with rote-teaching, is declining also the nearly allied teaching by rules. The particulars first, and then the generalization, is the new method—a method, as the Battersea School Reports remark, which, though "the reverse of the method usually followed which consists in giving the pupil the rule first," is yet proved by experience, to be the right one. Rule-teaching is now condemned as imparting a merely empirical knowledge—as producing an appearance of understanding without the reality. To give the net product of inquiry, without the inquiry that leads to it, is found to be both enervating and inefficient. General truths to be of due and permanent use, must be earned. "Easy come easy go," is a saying as applicable to knowledge as to wealth. While rules, lying isolated

in the mind—not joined to its other contents as outgrowths from them—are continually forgotten, the principles which those rules express piecemeal, become, when once reached by the understanding, enduring possessions. While the rule-taught youth is at sea when beyond his rules, the youth instructed in principles solves a new case as readily as an old one. Between a mind of rules and a mind of principles, there exists a difference such as that between a confused heap of materials, and the same materials organized into a complete whole, with all its parts bound together. Of which types this last has not only the advantage that its constituent parts are better retained, but the much greater advantage, that it forms an efficient agent for inquiry, for independent thought, for discovery—ends for which the first is useless. Nor let it be supposed that this is a simile only: it is the literal truth. The union of facts into generalizations is the organization of knowledge, whether considered as an objective phenomenon, or a subjective one: and the mental grasp may be measured by the extent to which this organization is carried.

From the substitution of principles for rules, and the necessarily co-ordinate practice of leaving abstractions untaught until the mind has been familiarized with the facts from which they are abstracted, has resulted the postponement of some once early studies to a late period. This is exemplified in the abandonment of that intensely stupid custom, the teaching of grammar to children. As M. Marcel says:—"It may without hesitation be affirmed that grammar is not the stepping-stone, but the finishing instrument." As Mr. Wyse argues:—"Grammar and Syntax are a collection of laws and rules. Rules are gathered from practice; they are the results of induction to which we come by long observation and comparison of facts.

#### INTRODUCTION OF NEW METHOD.

2. After long ages of blindness men are at last seeing that the spontaneous activity of the observing faculties in children has a meaning and a use. What was once thought mere purposeless action, or play, or mischief, as the case might be, is now recognized as the process of acquiring a knowledge on which all after-knowledge is based. Hence the well-conceived but ill-conducted system of *object-lessons*. The saying of Bacon, that physics is the mother of sciences, has come to have a meaning in education. Without an accurate acquaintance with the visible and tangible properties of things, our conceptions must be erroneous, our inferences fallacious, and our operations unsuccessful. "The education of the senses neglected, all after education partakes of a drowsiness, a haziness, an insufficiency which it is impossible to cure."

While the old method of presenting truths in the abstract has been falling out of use, there has been a corresponding adoption of the new method of presenting them in the concrete. The rudimentary facts of exact science are now being learnt by direct intuition, as textures, and tastes, and colors are learnt. Employing the ball-frame for first lessons in arithmetic exemplifies this. It is well illustrated, too, in Professor De Morgan's mode of explaining the decimal notation. M. Marcel, rightly repudiating the old system of tables, teaches weights and measures by referring to the actual yard and foot, pound and ounce, gallon and quart; and lets the discovery of their relationships be experimental. The use of geographical models and models of the regular bodies, &c., as introductory to geography and geometry respectively, are facts of the same class. Manifestly a common trait of these methods is, that they carry each child's

mind through a process like that which the mind of humanity at large has gone through. The truths of number, of form, of relationship in position, were all originally drawn from objects; and to present these truths to the child in the concrete is to let him learn them as the race learnt them. By-and-by, perhaps, it will be seen that he can not possibly learn them in any other way; for that if he is made to repeat them as abstractions, the abstractions can have no meaning for him, until he finds that they are simply statements of what he intuitively discerns.

But of all the changes taking place, the most significant is the growing desire to make the acquirement of knowledge pleasurable rather than painful—a desire based on the more or less distinct perception that at each age the intellectual action which a child likes is a healthful one for it; and conversely. There is a spreading opinion that the rise of an appetite for any kind of knowledge implies that the unfolding mind has become fit to assimilate it, and needs it for the purposes of growth; and that on the other hand, the disgust felt towards any kind of knowledge is a sign either that it is prematurely presented, or that it is presented in an indigestible form. Hence the efforts to make early education amusing, and all education interesting. Hence the lectures on the value of play. Hence the defense of nursery rhymes, and fairy tales. Daily we more and more conform our plans to juvenile opinion. Does the child like this or that kind of teaching? does he take to it? we constantly ask. "His natural desire of variety should be indulged," says M. Marcel; "and the gratification of his curiosity should be combined with his improvement." "Lessons," he again remarks, "should cease before the child evinces symptoms of weariness." And so with later education. Short breaks during school-hours, excursions into the country, amusing lectures, choral songs—in these and many like traits, the change may be discerned. Asceticism is disappearing out of education as out of life; and the usual test of political legislation—its tendency to promote happiness—is beginning to be, in a great degree, the test of legislation for the school and the nursery.

#### THE ORDER AND METHOD OF NATURE TO BE FOLLOWED.

3. There is a certain sequence in which the faculties spontaneously develop, and a certain kind of knowledge which each requires during its development; and that it is for us to ascertain this sequence, and supply this knowledge. A nebulous perception of it now prevails among teachers; and it is daily more insisted on in educational works. "The method of nature is the archetype of all methods," says M. Marcel. "The vital principle in the pursuit is to enable the pupil rightly to instruct himself," writes Mr. Wyse. The more science familiarizes us with the constitution of things the more do we see in them an inherent self-sufficiency. A higher knowledge tends continually to limit our interference with the processes of life. As in medicine the old "heroic treatment" has given place to mild treatment, and often no treatment save a normal regimen—as we have found that it is not needful to mould the bodies of babes by bandaging them in papoose fashion or otherwise—as in gaols it is being discovered that no cunningly devised discipline of ours is so efficient in producing reformation as the natural discipline, the making prisoners maintain themselves by productive labor; so in education we are finding that success is to be achieved only by rendering our measures subservient to that spontaneous unfolding which all minds go through in their progress to maturity.

## GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION.

4. Though it is not possible for a scheme of culture to be perfected either in matter or form until a rational Psychology has been established, it is possible, with the aid of certain guiding principles, to make empirical approximations towards a perfect scheme. To prepare the way for further research we will now specify these principles:—

(1.) That in education we should proceed from the simple to the complex is a truth which has always been to some extent acted upon; not professedly, indeed, nor by any means consistently. The mind grows. Like all things that grow it progresses from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous; and a normal training system being an objective counterpart of this subjective process, must exhibit the like progression. Moreover, regarding it from this point of view, we may see that this formula has much wider applications than at first appears. For its *rationale* involves not only that we should proceed from the simple to the combined in the teaching of each branch of knowledge; but that we should do the like with knowledge as a whole. As the mind, consisting at first of but few active faculties; has its later-completed faculties successively awakened, and ultimately comes to have all its faculties in simultaneous action; it follows that our teaching should begin with but few subjects at once, and successively adding to these, should finally carry on all subjects abreast—that not only in its details should education proceed from the simple to the complex, but in its *ensemble* also.

(2.) To say that our lessons ought to start from the concrete and end in the abstract, may be considered as in part a repetition of the foregoing. Nevertheless it is a maxim that needs to be stated: if with no other view, then with the view of showing in certain cases what are truly the simple and the complex. For unfortunately there has been much misunderstanding on this point. General formulas which men have devised to express groups of details, and which have severally simplified their conceptions by uniting many facts into one fact, they have supposed must simplify the conceptions of the child also: quite forgetting that a generalization is simple only in comparison with the whole mass of particular truths it comprehends—that it is more complex than any one of these truths taken singly—that only after many of these single truths have been acquired does the generalization ease the memory and help the reason—and that to the child not possessing these single truths it is necessarily a mystery. Thus confounding two kinds of simplification, teachers have constantly erred by setting out with “first principles:” a proceeding essentially, though not apparently, at variance with the primary rule; which implies that the mind should be introduced to principles through the medium of examples, and so should be led from the particular to the general—from the concrete to the abstract.

(3.) The education of the child must accord both in mode and arrangement with the education of mankind as considered historically; or in other words, the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race.

It is alike provable that the historical sequence was, in its main outlines, a necessary one; and that the causes which determined it apply to the child as to the race. Not to specify these causes in detail, it will suffice here to point out that as the mind of humanity placed in the midst of phenomena and striving to

comprehend them, has, after endless comparisons, speculations, experiments, and theories, reached its present knowledge of each subject by a specific route; it may rationally be inferred that the relationship between mind and phenomena is such as to prevent this knowledge from being reached by any other route; and that as each child's mind stands in this same relationship to phenomena, they can be accessible to it only through the same route. Hence in deciding upon the right method of education, an inquiry into the method of civilization will help to guide us.

(4.) One of the conclusions to which such an inquiry leads is, that in each branch of instruction we should proceed from the empirical to the rational. A leading fact in human progress is, that every science is evolved out of its corresponding art. It results from the necessity we are under, both individually and as a race, of reaching the abstract by way of the concrete, that there must be practice and an accruing experience with its empirical generalizations, before there can be science. Science is organized knowledge; and before knowledge can be organized, some of it must first be possessed. Every study, therefore, should have a purely experimental introduction; and only after an ample fund of observations has been accumulated, should reasoning begin. As illustrative applications of this rule, we may instance the modern course of placing grammar, not before language, but after it; or the ordinary custom of prefacing perspective by practical drawing. By-and-by further applications of it will be indicated.

(5.) A second corollary from the foregoing general principle, and one which can not be too strenuously insisted upon, is, that in education the process of self-development should be encouraged to the fullest extent. Children should be led to make their own investigations, and to draw their own inferences. They should be *told* as little as possible, and induced to *discover* as much as possible. Humanity has progressed solely by self-instruction; and that to achieve the best results, each mind must progress somewhat after the same fashion, is continually proved by the marked success of self-made men. Those who have been brought up under the ordinary school-drill, and have carried away with them the idea that education is practicable only in that style, will think it hopeless to make children their own teachers. If, however, they will call to mind that the all-important knowledge of surrounding objects which a child gets in its early years is got without help—if they will remember that the child is self-taught in the use of its mother tongue—if they will estimate the amount of that experience of life, that out-of-school wisdom, which every boy gathers for himself—if they will mark the unusual intelligence of the uncared-for London *gamin*, as shown in all the directions in which his faculties have been tasked—if further, they will think how many minds have struggled up unaided, not only through the mysteries of our irrationally-planned curriculum, but through hosts of other obstacles besides; they will find it a not unreasonable conclusion, that if the subjects be put before him in right order and right form, any pupil of ordinary capacity will surmount his successive difficulties with but little assistance. Who indeed can watch the ceaseless observation, and inquiry, and inference going on in a child's mind, or listen to its acute remarks on matters within the range of its faculties, without perceiving that these powers which it manifests, if brought to bear systematically upon any studies *within the same range*, would readily master them without help?

(6.) As a final test by which to judge any plan of culture, should come the

question,—Does it create a pleasurable excitement in the pupils? When in doubt whether a particular mode or arrangement is or is not more in harmony with the foregoing principles than some other, we may safely abide by this criterion. Even when, as considered theoretically, the proposed course seems the best, yet if it produce no interest, or less interest than another course, we should relinquish it; for a child's intellectual instincts are more trustworthy than our reasonings. In respect to the knowing faculties, we may confidently trust in the general law, that under normal conditions, healthful action is pleasurable, while action which gives pain is not healthful. Though at present very incompletely conformed to by the emotional nature, yet by the intellectual nature, or at least by those parts of it which the child exhibits, this law is almost wholly conformed to. The repugnances to this and that study which vex the ordinary teacher, are not innate, but result from his unwise system. Fellenberg says, "Experience has taught me that *indolence* in young persons is so directly opposite to their natural disposition to activity, that unless it is the consequence of bad education, it is almost invariably connected with some constitutional defect." And the spontaneous activity to which children are thus prone, is simply the pursuit of those pleasures which the healthful exercise of the faculties gives.

#### APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLE TO PRACTICE.

5. It was the opinion of Pestalozzi—an opinion which has ever since his day been gaining ground—that education of some kind should begin from the cradle. Whoever has watched with any discernment, the wide-eyed gaze of the infant at surrounding objects, knows very well that education *does* begin thus early, whether we intend it or not; and that these fingerings and suckings of every thing it can lay hold of, these open-mouthed listenings to every sound, are the first steps in the series which ends in the discovery of unseen planets, the invention of calculating engines, the production of great paintings, or the composition of symphonies and operas. This activity of the faculties from the very first being spontaneous and inevitable, the question is whether we shall supply in due variety the materials on which they may exercise themselves; and to the question so put, none but an affirmative answer can be given.

#### INTUITIONAL EXERCISE OF THE PERCEPTIONS.

6. The earliest impressions which the mind can assimilate, are those given to it by the undecomposable sensations—resistance, light, sound, &c. Manifestly decomposable states of consciousness can not exist before the states of consciousness out of which they are composed. There can be no idea of form until some familiarity with light in its gradations and qualities, or resistance in its different intensities, has been acquired; for, as has been long known, we recognize visible form by means of varieties of light, and tangible form by means of varieties of resistance. Similarly, no articulate sound is cognizable until the inarticulate sounds which go to make it up have been learned. And thus must it be in every other case. Following, therefore, the necessary law of progression from the simple to the complex, we should provide for the infant a sufficiency of objects presenting different degrees and kinds of resistance, a sufficiency of objects reflecting different amounts and qualities of light, and a sufficiency of sounds contrasted in their loudness, their pitch and their *timbre*. How fully this *a priori* conclusion is confirmed by infantile instincts all will see on being



reminded of the delight which every young child has in biting its toys, in feeling its brother's bright jacket-buttons, and pulling papa's whiskers—how absorbed it becomes in gazing at any gaudily painted object, to which it applies the word "pretty," when it can pronounce it, wholly in virtue of the bright colors—and how its face broadens into a laugh at the tattlings of its nurse, the snapping of a visitor's fingers, or any sound which it has not before heard. Fortunately, the ordinary practices of the nursery fulfill these early requirements of education to a considerable degree. Much, however, remains to be done; and it is of more importance that it should be done than at first appears. Every faculty during the period of its greatest activity—the period in which it is spontaneously evolving itself—is capable of receiving more vivid impressions than at any other period. Moreover, as these simplest elements must eventually be mastered, and as the mastery of them whenever achieved must take time, it becomes an economy of time to occupy this first stage of childhood, during which no other intellectual action is possible, in gaining a complete familiarity with them in all their modifications. Add to which, that both temper and health will be improved by the continual gratification resulting from a due supply of these impressions which every child so greedily assimilates. Space, could it be spared, might here be well filled by some suggestions towards a more systematic ministration to these simplest of the perceptions. But it must suffice to point out that any such ministration ought to be based upon the general truth that in the development of every faculty, markedly contrasted impressions are the first to be distinguished: that hence sounds greatly differing in loudness and pitch, colors very remote from each other, and substances widely unlike in hardness or texture, should be the first supplied; and that in each case the progression must be by slow degrees to impressions more nearly allied.

#### OBJECT-LESSONS.

7. It needs but a glance at the daily life of the infant to see that all the knowledge of things which is gained before the acquirement of speech, is self-gained—that the qualities of hardness and weight associated with certain visual appearances, the possession of particular forms and colors by particular persons, the production of special sounds by animals of special aspects, are phenomena which it observes for itself. In manhood too, when there are no longer teachers at hand, the observations and inferences required for daily guidance, must be made unhelped; and success in life depends upon the accuracy and completeness with which they are made. Is it probable then, that while the process displayed in the evolution of humanity at large, is repeated alike by the infant and the man, a reverse process must be followed during the period between infancy and manhood? and that too, even in so simple a thing as learning the properties of objects? Is it not obvious, on the contrary, that one method must be pursued throughout? And is not nature perpetually thrusting this method upon us, if we had but the wit to see it, and the humility to adopt it? What can be more manifest than the desire of children for intellectual sympathy? Mark how the infant sitting on your knee thrusts into your face the toy it holds, that you too may look at it. See when it makes a creak with its wet finger on the table, how it turns and looks at you; does it again, and again looks at you; thus saying as clearly as it can—"Hear this new sound." Watch how the elder children come into the room exclaiming—"Mamma, see what a curious thing," "Mamma, look at this," "Mamma, look at that;" and

would continue the habit, did not the silly mamma tell them not to tease her. Observe how, when out with the nurse-maid, each little one runs up to her with the new flower it has gathered, to show her how pretty it is, and to get her also, to say it is pretty. Listen to the eager volubility with which every urchin describes any novelty he has been to see, if only he can find some one who will attend with any interest. Does not the induction lie on the surface? Is it not clear that we must conform our course to these intellectual instincts—that we must just systematize the natural process—that we must listen to all the child has to tell us about each object, must induce it to say every thing it can think of about such object, must occasionally draw its attention to facts it has not yet observed, with the view of leading it to notice them itself whenever they recur, and must go on by-and-by to indicate or supply new series of things for a like exhaustive examination?

#### EXAMPLE OF A MASTER'S UNCONSCIOUS TUITION ON OBJECTS.

8. Step by step the mother familiarizes her little boy with the names of the simpler attributes, hardness, softness, color, taste, size, &c., in doing which she finds him eagerly help by bringing this to show her that it is red, and the other to make her feel that it is hard, as fast as she gives him words for these properties. Each additional property, as she draws his attention to it in some fresh thing which he brings her, she takes care to mention in connection with those he already knows; so that by the natural tendency to imitate, he may get into the habit of repeating them one after another. Gradually as there occur cases in which he omits to name one or more of the properties he has become acquainted with, she introduces the practice of asking him whether there is not something more that he can tell her about the thing he has got. Probably he does not understand. After letting him puzzle awhile she tells him; perhaps laughing at him a little for his failure. A few recurrences of this and he perceives what is to be done. When next she says she knows something more about the object than he has told her, his pride is roused; he looks at it intently; he thinks over all that he has heard; and the problem being easy, presently finds it out. He is full of glee at his success, and she sympathizes with him. In common with every child, he delights in the discovery of his powers. He wishes for more victories, and goes in quest of more things about which to tell her. As his faculties unfold she adds quality after quality to his list: progressing from hardness and softness to roughness and smoothness, from color to polish, from simple bodies to composite ones—thus constantly complicating the problem as he gains competence, constantly taxing his attention and memory to a greater extent, constantly maintaining his interest by supplying him with new impressions such as his mind can assimilate, and constantly gratifying him by conquests over such small difficulties as he can master. In doing this she is manifestly but following out that spontaneous process that was going on during a still earlier period—simply aiding self-evolution; and is aiding it in the mode suggested by the boy's instinctive behavior to her. Manifestly, too, the course she is pursuing is the one best calculated to establish a habit of exhaustive observation; which is the professed aim of these lessons. To *tell* a child this and to *show* it the other, is not to teach it how to observe, but to make it a mere recipient of another's observations: a proceeding which weakens rather than strengthens its powers of self-instruction—which deprives it of the pleasures resulting from successful activity—which presents this all-attractive knowledge

under the aspect of formal tuition—and which thus generates that indifference and even disgust with which these object-lessons are not unfrequently regarded. On the other hand, to pursue the course above described is simply to guide the intellect to its appropriate food; to join with the intellectual appetites their natural adjuncts—*amour propre* and the desire for sympathy; to induce by the union of all these an intensity of attention which insures perceptions alike vivid and complete; and to habituate the mind from the beginning to that practice of self-help which it must ultimately follow.

#### EXTENSION OF THE FIELD OF OBJECT-TEACHING.

9. Object-lessons should not only be carried on after quite a different fashion from that commonly pursued, but should be extended to a range of things far wider, and continue to a period far later, than now. They should not be limited to the contents of the house; but should include those of the fields and the hedges, the quarry and the sea-shore. They should not cease with early childhood; but should be so kept up during youth as insensibly to merge into the investigations of the naturalist and the man of science. Here again we have but to follow nature's leadings. Where can be seen an intenser delight than that of children picking up new flowers and watching new insects, or hoarding pebbles and shells? And who is there but perceives that by sympathizing with them they may be led on to any extent of inquiry into the qualities and structures of these things? Every botanist who has had children with him in the woods and the lanes must have noticed how eagerly they joined in his pursuits, how keenly they searched out plants for him, how intently they watched whilst he examined them, how they overwhelmed him with questions. The consistent follower of Bacon—the “servant and interpreter of nature,” will see that we ought modestly to adopt the course of culture thus indicated. Having gained due familiarity with the simpler properties of inorganic objects, the child should by the same process be led on to a like exhaustive examination of the things it picks up in its daily walks—the less complex facts they present being alone noticed at first: in plants, the color, number, and forms of the petals and shapes of the stalks and leaves: in insects, the numbers of the wings, legs, and antennæ, and their colors. As these become fully appreciated and invariably observed, further facts may be successively introduced: in the one case, the numbers of stamens and pistils, the forms of the flowers, whether radial or bilateral in symmetry, the arrangement and character of the leaves, whether opposite or alternate, stalked or sessile, smooth or hairy, serrated, toothed, or crenate; in the other, the divisions of the body, the segments of the abdomen, the markings of the wings, the number of joints in the legs, and the forms of the smaller organs—the system pursued throughout being that of making it the child's ambition to say respecting every thing it finds, all that can be said. Then when a fit age has been reached, the means of preserving these plants which have become so interesting in virtue of the knowledge obtained of them, may as a great favor be supplied; and eventually, as a still greater favor, may also be supplied the apparatus needful for keeping the larvæ of our common butterflies and moths through their transformations—a practice which, as we can personally testify, yields the highest gratification; is continued with ardor for years; when joined with the formation of an entomological collection, adds immense interest to Saturday-afternoon rambles; and forms an admirable introduction to the study of physiology.

## VALUE OF A LOVE AND A KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE.

10. If there is a more worthy aim for us than to be drudges—if there are other uses in the things around us than their power to bring money—if there are higher faculties to be exercised than acquisitive and sensual ones—if the pleasures which poetry and art and science and philosophy can bring are of any moment—then is it desirable that the instinctive inclination which every child shows to observe natural beauties and investigate natural phenomena should be encouraged. But this gross utilitarianism which is content to come into the world and quit it again without knowing what kind of a world it is or what it contains, may be met on its own ground. It will by and by be found that a knowledge of the laws of life is more important than any other knowledge whatever—that the laws of life include not only all bodily and mental processes, but by implication all the transactions of the house and the street, all commerce, all politics, all morals—and that therefore without a due acquaintance with them neither personal nor social conduct can be rightly regulated. It will eventually be seen too, that the laws of life are essentially the same throughout the whole organic creation; and further, that they can not be properly understood in their complex manifestations until they have been studied in their simpler ones. And when this is seen, it will be also seen that in aiding the child to acquire the out-of-door information for which it shows so great an avidity, and in encouraging the acquisition of such information throughout youth, we are simply inducing it to store up the raw material for future organization—the facts that will one day bring home to it with due force those great generalizations of science by which actions may be rightly guided.

## DRAWING—INCLUDING FORM AND COLOR.

11. The spreading recognition of drawing as an element of education, is one amongst many signs of the more rational views on mental culture now beginning to prevail. Once more it may be remarked that teachers are at length adopting the course which nature has for ages been pressing upon their notice. The spontaneous efforts made by children to represent the men, houses, trees, and animals around them—on a slate if they can get nothing better, or with lead-pencil on paper, if they can beg them—are familiar to all. To be shown through a picture-book is one of their highest gratifications; and as usual, their strong imitative tendency presently generates in them the ambition to make pictures themselves also. This attempt to depict the striking things they see is a further instinctive exercise of the perceptions—a means whereby still greater accuracy and completeness of observation is induced. And alike by seeking to interest us in their discoveries of the sensible properties of things, and by their endeavors to draw, they solicit from us just that kind of culture which they most need.

Had teachers been guided by nature's hints not only in the making of drawing a part of education, but in the choice of their modes of teaching it, they would have done still better than they have done. What is it that the child first tries to represent? Things that are large, things that are attractive in color, things round which its pleasurable associations most cluster—human beings from whom it has received so many emotions, cows and dogs which interest by the many phenomena they present, houses that are hourly visible and strike by their size and contrast of parts. And which of all the processes of

representation gives it most delight? Coloring. Paper and pencil are good in default of something better; but a box of paints and a brush—these are the treasures. The drawing of outlines immediately becomes secondary to coloring—is gone through mainly with a view to the coloring; and if leave can be got to color a book of prints, how great is the favor! Now, ridiculous as such a position will seem to drawing-masters, who postpone coloring and who teach form by a dreary discipline of copying lines, we believe that the course of culture thus indicated is the right one. That priority of color to form, which, as already pointed out, has a psychological basis, and in virtue of which psychological basis arises this strong preference in the child, should be recognized from the very beginning; and from the very beginning also the things imitated should be real. That greater delight in color which is not only conspicuous in children but persists in most persons throughout life, should be continuously employed as the natural stimulus to the mastery of the comparatively difficult and unattractive form—should be the prospective reward for the achievement of form. And these instinctive attempts to represent interesting actualities should be all along encouraged; in the conviction that as, by a widening experience, smaller and more practicable objects become interesting, they too will be attempted; and that so a gradual approximation will be made towards imitations having some resemblance to the realities. No matter how grotesque the shapes produced: no matter how daubed and glaring the colors. The question is not whether the child is producing good drawings: the question is, whether it is developing its faculties. It has first to gain some command over its fingers, some crude notions of likeness; and this practice is better than any other for these ends; seeing that it is the spontaneous and the interesting one. During these early years, be it remembered, no formal drawing-lessons are possible: shall we therefore repress, or neglect to aid, these efforts at self-culture? or shall we encourage and guide them as normal exercises of the perceptions and the powers of manipulation? If by the supply of cheap wood-cuts to be colored, and simple contour-maps to have their boundary lines tinted, we can not only pleasurably draw out the faculty of color, but can incidentally produce some familiarity with the outlines of things and countries, and some ability to move the brush steadily; and if by the supply of temptingly-painted objects we can keep up the instinctive practice of making representations, however rough, it must happen that by the time drawing is commonly commenced there will exist a facility that would else have been absent. Time will have been gained; and trouble both to teacher and pupil, saved.

#### DIMENSIONS IN PERSPECTIVE

12. If any dependence is to be placed upon the general principles of education that have been laid down, the process of learning to draw should be throughout continuous with those efforts of early childhood described above, as no worthy of encouragement. By the time that the voluntary practice thus initiated has given some steadiness of hand, and some tolerable ideas of proportion, there will have arisen a vague notion of body as presenting its three dimensions in perspective. And when, after sundry abortive, Chinese-like attempts to render this appearance on paper, there has grown up a pretty clear perception of the thing to be achieved, and a desire to achieve it, a first lesson in empirical perspective may be given by means of the apparatus occasionally used in explaining perspective as a science. This sounds formidable; but the

experiment is both comprehensive and interesting to any boy or girl of ordinary intelligence. A plate of glass so framed as to stand vertically on the table, being placed before the pupil, and a book, or like simple object laid on the other side of it, he is requested, whilst keeping the eye in one position, to make ink dots upon the glass, so that they may coincide with, or hide the corners of this object. He is then told to join these dots by lines; on doing which he perceives that the lines he makes hide, or coincide with the outlines of the object. And then on being asked to put a sheet of paper on the other side of the glass, he discovers that the lines he has thus drawn represent the object as he saw it. They not only look like it, but he perceives that they must be like it, because he made them agree with its outlines; and by removing the paper he can repeatedly convince himself that they do agree with its outlines. The fact is new and striking; and serves him as an experimental demonstration, that lines of certain lengths, placed in certain directions on a plane, can represent lines of other lengths, and having other directions in space. Subsequently, by gradually changing the position of the object, he may be led to observe how some lines shorten and disappear, whilst others come into sight and lengthen. The convergence of parallel lines, and, indeed, all the leading facts of perspective may, from time to time, be similarly illustrated to him. If he has been duly accustomed to self-help, he will gladly, when it is suggested, make the attempt to draw one of these outlines upon paper, by the eye only; and it may soon be made an exciting aim to produce, unassisted, a representation, as like as he can, to one subsequently sketched on the glass. Thus, without the un-intelligent, mechanical practice of copying other drawings, but by a method at once simple and attractive—rational, yet not abstract, a familiarity with the linear appearances of things, and a faculty of rendering them, may be, step by step, acquired. To which advantages add these:—that even thus early the pupil learns, almost unconsciously, the true theory of a picture—namely, that it is a delineation of objects as they appear when projected on a plane placed between them and the eye; and that when he reaches a fit age for commencing scientific perspective he is already thoroughly acquainted with the facts which form its logical basis.

#### GEOMETRY—PRIMARY.

13. As exhibiting a rational mode of communicating primary conceptions in geometry, we can not do better than quote the following passage from Mr. Wyse:—

"A child has been in the habit of using cubes for arithmetic; let him use them also for the elements of geometry. I would begin with solids, the reverse of the usual plan. It saves all the difficulty of absurd definitions, and bad explanations on points, lines, and surfaces, which are nothing but abstractions. . . . A cube presents many of the principal elements of geometry; it at once exhibits points, straight lines, parallel lines, angles, parallelograms, &c., &c. These cubes are divisible into various parts. The pupil has already been familiarized with such divisions in numeration, and he now proceeds to a comparison of their several parts, and of the relation of these parts to each other. . . . From thence he advances to globes, which furnish him with elementary notions of the circle, of curves generally, &c., &c.

"Being tolerably familiar with solids, he may now substitute planes. The



transition may be made very easy. Let the cube, for instance, be cut into thin divisions, and placed on paper; he will then see as many plane rectangles as he has divisions; so with all the others. Globes may be treated in the same manner; he will thus see how surfaces really are generated, and be enabled to abstract them with facility in every solid.

"He has thus acquired the alphabet and reading of geometry. He now proceeds to write it.

"The simplest operation, and therefore the first, is merely to place these planes on a piece of paper, and pass the pencil round them. When this has been frequently done, the plane may be put at a little distance, and the child required to copy it, and so on."

A stock of geometrical conceptions having been obtained, in some such manner as this recommended by Mr. Wyse, a further step may, in course of time, be taken, by introducing the practice of testing the correctness of all figures drawn by the eye; thus alike exciting an ambition to make them exact, and continually illustrating the difficulty of fulfilling that ambition. In the cutting out of pieces for his card-houses, in the drawing of ornamental diagrams for coloring, and in those various instructive occupations which an inventive teacher will lead him into, he may be for a length of time advantageously left, like the primitive builder, to tentative processes; and will so gain an abundant experience of the difficulty of achieving his aims by the unaided senses. When, having meanwhile undergone a valuable discipline of the perceptions, he has reached a fit age for using a pair of compasses, he will, whilst duly appreciating these as enabling him to verify his ocular guesses, be still hindered by the difficulties of the approximative method. In this stage he may be left for a further period: partly as being yet too young for any thing higher; partly because it is desirable that he should be made to feel still more strongly the want of systematic contrivances. If the acquisition of knowledge is to be made continuously interesting; and if, in the early civilization of the child, as in the early civilization of the race, science becomes attractive only as ministering to art; it is manifest that the proper preliminary to geometry is a long practice in those constructive processes which geometry will facilitate. Observe that here, too, nature points the way. Almost invariably, children, show a strong propensity to cut out things in paper, to make, to build—a propensity which, if duly encouraged and directed, will not only prepare the way for scientific conceptions, but will develop those powers of manipulation in which most people are so deficient.

#### GEOMETRY—EMPIRICAL.

14. When the observing and inventive faculties have attained the requisite power, the pupil may be introduced to empirical geometry; that is—geometry dealing with methodical solutions, but not with the demonstrations of them. Like all other transitions in education, this should be made not formally but incidentally; and the relationship to constructive art should still be maintained. To make a tetrahedron in cardboard, like one given to him, is a problem which will alike interest the pupil, and serve as a convenient starting-point. In attempting this, he finds it needful to draw four equilateral triangles arranged in special positions. Being unable in the absence of an exact method to do this accurately he discovers on putting the triangles into their respective positions, that he can not make their sides fit, and that their angles do not properly meet

at the apex. He may now be shown how by describing a couple of circles, each of these triangles may be drawn with perfect correctness and without guessing; and after his failure he will duly value the information. Having thus helped him to the solution of his first problem, with the view of illustrating the nature of geometrical methods, he is in future to be left altogether to his own ingenuity in solving the questions put to him. To bisect a line, to erect a perpendicular, to describe a square, to bisect an angle, to draw a line parallel to a given line, to describe a hexagon, are problems which a little patience will enable him to find out. And from these he may be led on step by step to questions of a more complex kind; all of which, under judicious management, he will puzzle through unhelped. Doubtless, many of those brought up under the old regime, will look upon this assertion skeptically. We speak from facts, however, and those neither few nor special. We have seen a class of boys become so interested in making out solutions to these problems, as to look forward to their geometry-lesson as a chief event of the week. Within the last month, we have been told of one girls' school, in which some of the young ladies voluntarily occupy themselves with geometrical questions out of school-hours; and of another, in which they not only do this, but in which one of them is begging for problems to find out during the holidays—both which facts we state on the authority of the teacher. There could indeed be no stronger proofs than are thus afforded of the practicability and the immense advantage of self-development. A branch of knowledge which as commonly taught is dry and even repulsive, may, by following the method of nature, be made extremely interesting and profoundly beneficial. We say profoundly beneficial, because the effects are not confined to the gaining of geometrical facts, but often revolutionize the whole state of mind. It has repeatedly occurred, that those who have been stupefied by the ordinary school-drill—by its abstract formulas, by its wearisome tasks, by its cramming—have suddenly had their intellects roused, by thus ceasing to make them passive recipients, and inducing them to become active discoverers.

This empirical geometry which presents an endless series of problems, and should be continued along with other studies for years, may throughout be advantageously accompanied by those concrete applications of its principles which serve as its preliminary. After the cube, the octahedron, and the various forms of pyramid and prism have been mastered, may come the more complex regular bodies—the dodecahedron, and the icosahedron—to construct which out of single pieces of cardboard requires considerable ingenuity. From these, the transition may naturally be made to such modified forms of the regular bodies as are met with in crystals—the truncated cube, the cube with its dihedral as well as its solid angles truncated, the octahedron and the various prisms as similarly modified; in imitating which numerous forms assumed by different metals and salts, an acquaintance with the leading facts of mineralogy will be incidentally gained. After long continuance in exercises of this kind, rational geometry, as may be supposed, presents no obstacles. Constantly habituated to contemplate relationships of form and quantity, and vaguely perceiving from time to time the necessity of certain results as reached by certain means, the pupil comes to regard the demonstrations of Euclid as the missing supplements to his familiar problems. His well-disciplined faculties enable him easily to master its successive propositions, and to appreciate their value; and he has the occasional gratification of finding some of his own methods proved to be true.

Thus he enjoys what is to the unprepared a dreary task. It only remains to add, that his mind will presently arrive at a fit condition for that most valuable of all exercises for the reflective faculties—the making of original demonstrations.

THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE SHOULD BE A PROCESS OF SELF-INSTRUCTION AND CONTINUOUS PLEASURE.

15. If progression from simple to complex, and from concrete to abstract, be considered the essential requirements as dictated by abstract psychology, then do these requirements that knowledge shall be self-mastered, and pleasurably mastered, become the tests by which we may judge whether the dictates of abstract psychology are being fulfilled. If the first embody the leading generalizations of the science of mental growth, the last are the chief canons of the art of fostering mental growth. For manifestly if the steps in our curriculum are so arranged that they can be successively ascended by the pupil himself with little or no help, they must correspond with the stages of evolution, in his faculties; and manifestly if the successive achievements of these steps are intrinsically gratifying to him, it follows that they require no more than a normal exercise of his powers.

But the making education a process of self-evolution has other advantages than this of keeping our lessons in the right order. In the first place, it guarantees a vividness and permanency of impression which the usual methods can never produce. Any piece of knowledge which the pupil has himself acquired, any problem which he has himself solved, becomes by virtue of the conquest much more thoroughly his than it could else be. The preliminary activity of mind which his success implies, the concentration of thought necessary to it, and the excitement consequent on his triumph, conspire to register all the facts in his memory in a way that no mere information heard from a teacher, or read in a school-book, can be registered. Even if he fails, the tension to which his faculties have been wound up insures his remembrance of the solution when given to him, better than half a dozen repetitions would. Observe again, that this discipline necessitates a continuous organization of the knowledge he acquires. It is in the very nature of facts and inferences, assimilated in this normal manner, that they successively become the premises of further conclusions. The solution of yesterday's problem helps the pupil in mastering to-day's. Thus the knowledge is turned into faculty as soon as it is taken in, and forthwith aids in the general function of thinking—does not lie merely written in the pages of an internal library, as when rote-learned. Mark further, the importance of the moral culture which this constant self-help involves. Courage in attacking difficulties, patient concentration of the attention, perseverance through failures—these are characteristics which after-life specially requires; and these are characteristics which this system of making the mind work for its food specially produces. That it is thoroughly practicable to carry out instruction after this fashion we can ourselves testify; having been in youth thus led to successively solve the comparatively complex problems of Perspective. And that leading teachers have been gradually tending in this direction is indicated alike in the saying of Fellenberg, that "the individual, independent activity of the pupil is of much greater importance than the ordinary busy officiousness of many who assume the office of educators;" in the opinion of Horace Mann, that "unfortunately education amongst us at present consists too much in *telling*, not

in training;" and in the remark of M. Marcel, that "what the learner discovers by mental exertion is better known than what is told to him."

A pleasurable state of feeling is far more favorable to intellectual action than one of indifference or disgust. Every one knows that things read, heard, or seen with interest, are better remembered than those read, heard, or seen with apathy. In the one case the faculties appealed to are actively occupied with the subject presented; in the other they are inactively occupied with it; and the attention is continually drawn away after more attractive thoughts. Hence the impressions are respectively strong and weak.

No one can compare the faces and manners of two boys—the one made happy by mastering interesting subjects, and the other made miserable by disgust with his studies, by consequent failure, by cold looks, by threats, by punishment—without seeing that the disposition of the one is being benefited, and that of the other greatly injured. Whoever has marked the effect of intellectual success upon the mind, and the power of the mind over the body, will see that in the one case both temper and health are favorably affected; whilst in the other there is danger of permanent moroseness, of permanent timidity, and even of permanent constitutional depression. To all which considerations we must add the further one, that the relationship between teachers and their pupils is, other things equal, rendered friendly and influential, or antagonistic and powerless, according as the system of culture produces happiness or misery. Human beings are at the mercy of their associated ideas. A daily minister of pain can not fail to be regarded with a secret dislike, and if he causes no emotions but painful ones, will inevitably be hated. Conversely, he who constantly aids children to their ends, hourly provides them with the satisfactions of conquest, hourly encourages them through their difficulties and sympathizes in their successes, can not fail to be liked; nay, if his behavior is consistent throughout, must be loved. And when we remember how efficient and benign is the control of a master who is felt to be a friend, when compared with the control of one who is looked upon with aversion, or at best indifference, we may infer that the indirect advantages of conducting education on the happiness principle do not fall far short of the direct ones. To all who question the possibility of acting out the system here advocated, we reply as before, that not only does theory point to it, but experience commends it. To the many verdicts of distinguished teachers who since Pestalozzi's time have testified this, may be here added that of Professor Pillans, who asserts that "where young people are taught as they ought to be, they are quite as happy in school as at play, seldom less delighted, nay, often more, with the well-directed exercise of their mental energies, than with that of their muscular powers."

As suggesting a final reason for making education a process of self-instruction, and by consequence a process of pleasurable instruction, we may advert to the fact that, in proportion as it is made so, is there a probability that education will not cease when school-days end. As long as the acquisition of knowledge is rendered habitually repugnant, so long will there be a prevailing tendency to discontinue it when free from the coercion of parents and masters. And when the acquisition of knowledge has been rendered habitually gratifying, then will there be as prevailing a tendency to continue, without superintendence, that same self-culture previously carried on under superintendence. These results are inevitable. While the laws of mental association remain true—while men dislike the things and places that suggest painful recollections, and delight in

those which call to mind by-gone pleasures—painful lessons will make knowledge repulsive, and pleasurable lessons will make it attractive. The men to whom in boyhood information came in dreary tasks along with threats of punishment, and who were never led into habits of independent inquiry, are unlikely to be students in after years; while those to whom it came in the natural form, at the proper times, and who remember its facts as not only interesting in themselves, but as the occasions of a long series of gratifying successes, are likely to continue through life that self-instruction commenced in youth.

#### IV. WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS MOST WORTH.

##### THE RELATIVE VALUES OF KNOWLEDGE.

1. Before there can be a rational *curriculum*, we must settle which things it most concerns us to know; or, to use a word of Bacon's, now unfortunately obsolete—we must determine the relative values of knowledges.

Had we time to master all subjects we need not be particular. To quote the old song:—

Could a man be secure  
That his days would endure  
As of old, for a thousand long years,  
What things might he know!  
What deeds might he do!  
And all without hurry or care.

"But we that have but span-long lives" must ever bear in mind our limited time for acquisition. And remembering how narrowly this time is limited, not only by the shortness of life, but also still more by the business of life, we ought to be especially solicitous to employ what time we have to the greatest advantage. Before devoting years to some subject which fashion or fancy suggests, it is surely wise to weigh with great care the worth of the results, as compared with the worth of various alternative results which the same years might bring if otherwise applied.

How to live?—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all directions under all circumstances. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to live completely? And this being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is, to judge in what degree it discharges such function.

Our first step must obviously be to classify, in the order of their importance, the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life. They may be naturally arranged into:—1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation; 2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation; 3. Those activities which have for their

end the rearing and discipline of offspring; 4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations; 5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.

#### KNOWLEDGE REQUISITE TO SELF-PRESERVATION.

2. Happily, that all-important part of education which goes to secure direct self-preservation, is in great part already provided for. Too momentous to be left to our blundering, Nature takes it into her own hands. While yet in its nurse's arms, the infant, by hiding its face and crying at the sight of a stranger, shows the dawning instinct to attain safety by flying from that which is unknown and may be dangerous; and when it can walk, the terror it manifests if an unfamiliar dog comes near, or the screams with which it runs to its mother after any startling sight or sound, shows this instinct further developed. Moreover, knowledge subserving direct self-preservation is that which it is chiefly busied in acquiring from hour to hour. How to balance its body; how to control its movements so as to avoid collisions; what objects are hard, and will hurt if struck; what objects are heavy, and injure if they fall on the limbs; which things will bear the weight of the body, and which not; the pains inflicted by fire, by missiles, by sharp instruments—these, and various other pieces of information needful for the avoidance of death or accident, it is ever learning. And when, a few years later, the energies go out in running, climbing, and jumping, in games of strength and games of skill, we see in all these actions by which the muscles are developed, the perceptions sharpened, and the judgment quickened, a preparation for the safe conduct of the body among surrounding objects and movements; and for meeting those greater dangers that occasionally occur in the lives of all. Being thus, as we say, so well cared for by Nature, this fundamental education needs comparatively little care from us. What we are chiefly called upon to see, is, that there shall be free scope for gaining this experience, and receiving this discipline,—that there shall be no such thwarting of Nature as that by which stupid schoolmistresses commonly prevent the girls in their charge from the spontaneous physical activities they would indulge in; and so render them comparatively incapable of taking care of themselves in circumstances of peril.

#### KNOWLEDGE REQUISITE TO INDUSTRIAL SUCCESS.

3. While every one is ready to indorse the abstract proposition that instruction fitting youths for the business of life is of high importance, or even to consider it of supreme importance; yet scarcely any inquire what instruction will so fit them. It is true that reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught with an intelligent appreciation of their uses; but when we have said this we have said nearly all. While the great bulk of what else is acquired has no bearing on the industrial activities, an immensity of information that has a direct bearing on the industrial activities is entirely passed over.

For, leaving out only some very small classes, what are all men employed in? They are employed in the production, preparation, and distribution of commodities. And on what does efficiency in the production, preparation, and distribution of commodities depend? It depends on the use of methods fitted to the respective natures of these commodities; it depends on an adequate knowledge of their physical, chemical, or vital properties, as the case may be: that is,



it depends on Science. This order of knowledge, which is in great part ignored in our school courses, is the order of knowledge underlying the right performance of all those processes by which civilized life is made possible.

#### Mathematics.

For all the higher arts of construction, some acquaintance with Mathematics is indispensable. The village carpenter, who, lacking rational instruction, lays out his work by empirical rules learnt in his apprenticeship, equally with the builder of a Britannia Bridge, makes hourly reference to the laws of quantitative relations. The surveyor on whose survey the land is purchased; the architect in designing a mansion to be built on it; the builder in preparing his estimates; his foreman in laying out the foundations; the masons in cutting the stones; and the various artisans who put up the fittings; are all guided by geometrical truths. Railway-making is regulated from beginning to end by mathematics: alike in the preparation of plans and sections; in staking out the line; in the mensuration of cuttings and embankments; in the designing, estimating, and building of bridges, culverts, viaducts, tunnels, stations. And similarly with the harbors, docks, piers, and various engineering and architectural works that fringe the coasts and overspread the face of the country; as well as the mines that run underneath it. Out of geometry, too, as applied to astronomy, the art of navigation has grown; and so, by this science, has been made possible that enormous foreign commerce which supports a large part of our population, and supplies us with many necessities and most of our luxuries. And now-a-days even the farmer, for the correct laying out of his drains, has recourse to the level—that is, to geometrical principles. When from those divisions of mathematics which deal with *space*, and *number*, some small smattering of which is given in schools, we turn to that other division which deals with *force*, of which even a smattering is scarcely ever given, we meet with another large class of activities which this science presides over. On the application of rational mechanics depends the success of nearly all modern manufacture. The properties of the lever, the wheel and axle, &c., are involved in every machine—every machine is a solidified mechanical theorem; and to machinery in these times we owe nearly all production. Trace the history of the breakfast-roll. The soil out of which it came was drained with machine-made tiles; the surface was turned over by a machine; the seed was put in by a machine; the wheat was reaped, thrashed, and winnowed by machines; by machinery it was ground and bolted; and had the flour been sent to Gosport, it might have been made into biscuits by a machine. Look round the room in which you sit. If modern, probably the bricks in its walls were machine-made; by machinery the flooring was sawn and planed, the mantel-shelf sawn and polished, the paper-hangings made and printed; the veneer on the table, the turned legs of the chairs, the carpet, the curtains, are all products of machinery. And your clothing—plain, figured, or printed—is it not wholly woven, nay, perhaps even sewed, by machinery? And the volume you are reading—are not its leaves fabricated by one machine and covered with these words by another? Add to which that for the means of distribution over both land and sea, we are similarly indebted. And then let it be remembered that according as the principles of mechanics are well or ill used to these ends, comes success or failure—individual and national. The engineer who misapplies his formulæ for the strength of materials, builds a bridge that breaks down. The manufacturer whose apparatus

is badly devised, can not compete with another whose apparatus wastes less in friction and inertia. The ship-builder adhering to the old model, is outtailed by one who builds on the mechanically-justified wave-line principle. And as the ability of a nation to hold its own against other nations depends on the skilled activity of its units, we see that on such knowledge may turn the national fate. Judge then the worth of mathematics.

#### *Physics.*

Pass next to Physics. Joined with mathematics, it has given us the steam-engine, which does the work of millions of laborers. That section of physics which deals with the laws of heat, has taught us how to economize fuel in our various industries; how to increase the produce of our smelting furnaces by substituting the hot for the cold blast; how to ventilate our mines; how to prevent explosions by using the safety-lamp; and, through the thermometer, how to regulate innumerable processes. That division which has the phenomena of light for its subject, gives eyes to the old and the myopic; aids through the microscope in detecting diseases and adulterations; and by improved lighthouses prevents shipwrecks. Researches in electricity and magnetism have saved incalculable life and property by the compass; have subverted sundry arts by the electrotype; and now, in the telegraph, have supplied us with the agency by which for the future all mercantile transactions will be regulated, political intercourse carried on, and perhaps national quarrels often avoided. While in the details of in-door life, from the improved kitchen-range up to the stereoscope on the drawing-room table, the applications of advanced physics underlie our comforts and gratifications.

#### *Chemistry.*

Still more numerous are the bearings of Chemistry on those activities by which men obtain the means of living. The bleacher, the dyer, the calico-printer, are severally occupied in processes that are well or ill done according as they do or do not conform to chemical laws. The economical reduction from their ores of copper, tin, zinc, lead, silver, iron, are in a great measure questions of chemistry. Sugar-refining, gas-making, soap-boiling, gunpowder manufacture, are operations all partly chemical; as are also those by which are produced glass and porcelain. Whether the distiller's wort stops at the alcoholic fermentation or passes into the acetous, is a chemical question on which hangs his profit or loss; and the brewer, if his business is sufficiently large, finds it pay to keep a chemist on his premises. Glance through a work on technology, and it becomes at once apparent that there is now scarcely any process in the arts or manufactures over some part of which chemistry does not preside. And then, lastly, we come to the fact that in these times, agriculture, to be profitably carried on, must have like guidance. The analysis of manures and soils; their adaptations to each other; the use of gypsum or other substance for fixing ammonia; the utilization of coprolites; the production of artificial manures—all these are boons of chemistry which it behooves the farmer to acquaint himself with. Be it in the lucifer match, or in disinfected sewage, or in photographs—in bread made without fermentation, or perfumes extracted from refuse, we may perceive that chemistry affects all our industries; and that, by consequence, knowledge of it concerns every one who is directly or indirectly connected with our industries.

*Biology.*

And then the science of life—Biology: does not this, too, bear fundamentally upon these processes of indirect self-preservation? With what we ordinarily call manufactures, it has, indeed, little connection; but with the all-essential manufacture—that of food—it is inseparably connected. As agriculture must conform its methods to the phenomena of vegetable and animal life, it follows necessarily that the science of these phenomena is the rational basis of agriculture. Various biological truths have indeed been empirically established and acted upon by farmers while yet there has been no conception of them as science: such as that particular manures are suited to particular plants; that crops of certain kinds unfit the soil for other crops; that horses can not do good work on poor food; that such and such diseases of cattle and sheep are caused by such and such conditions. These, and the everyday knowledge which the agriculturist gains by experience respecting the right management of plants and animals, constitute his stock of biological facts; on the largeness of which greatly depends his success. And as these biological facts, scanty, indefinite, rudimentary, though they are, aid him so essentially; judge what must be the value to him of such facts when they become positive, definite, and exhaustive. Indeed, even now we may see the benefits that rational biology is conferring on him. The truth that the production of animal heat implies waste of substance, and that, therefore, preventing loss of heat prevents the need for extra food—a purely theoretical conclusion—now guides the fattening of cattle: it is found that by keeping cattle warm, fodder is saved. Similarly with respect to variety of food. The experiments of physiologists have shown that not only is change of diet beneficial, but that digestion is facilitated by a mixture of ingredients in each meal: both which truths are now influencing cattle-feeding. The discovery that a disorder known as “the staggers,” of which many thousands of sheep have died annually, is caused by an entozoon which presses on the brain; and that if the creature is extracted through the softened place in the skull which marks its position, the sheep usually recovers; is another debt which agriculture owes to biology. When we observe the marked contrast between our farming and farming on the Continent, and remember that this contrast is mainly due to the far greater influence science has had upon farming here than there; and when we see how, daily, competition is making the adoption of scientific methods more general and necessary; we shall rightly infer that very soon, agricultural success in England will be impossible without a competent knowledge of animal and vegetable physiology.

*Science of Society.*

Yet one more science have we to note as bearing directly on industrial success—the Science of Society. Without knowing it, men who daily look at the state of the money-market, glance over prices current, discuss the probable crops of corn, cotton, sugar, wool, silk, weigh the chances of war, and from all those data decide on their mercantile operations, are students of social science: empirical and blundering students it may be; but still, students who gain the prizes or are plucked of their profits, according as they do or do not reach the right conclusion. Not only the manufacturer and the merchant must guide their transactions by calculations of supply and demand, based on numerous facts, and tacitly recognizing sundry general principles of social action; but

even the retailer must do the like: his prosperity very greatly depending upon the correctness of his judgments respecting the future wholesale prices and the future rates of consumption. Manifestly, all who take part in the entangled commercial activities of a community, are vitally interested in understanding the laws according to which those activities vary.

Thus, to all such as are occupied in the production, exchange, or distribution of commodities, acquaintance with science in some of its departments, is of fundamental importance.

#### KNOWLEDGE REQUISITE TO THE REARING AND DISCIPLINE OF THE FAMILY OFFSPRING.

4. Is it not an astonishing fact, that though on the treatment of offspring depend their lives or deaths, and their moral welfare or ruin; yet not one word of instruction on the treatment of offspring is ever given to those who will hereafter be parents? Is it not monstrous that the fate of a new generation should be left to the chances of unreasoning custom, impulse, fancy—joined with the suggestions of ignorant nurses and the prejudiced counsel of grandmothers? If a merchant commenced business without any knowledge of arithmetic and book-keeping, we should exclaim at his folly, and look for disastrous consequences. Or if, before studying anatomy, a man set up as a surgical operator, we should wonder at his audacity and pity his patients. But that parents should begin the difficult task of rearing children without ever having given a thought to the principles—physical, moral, or intellectual—which ought to guide them, excites neither surprise at the actors nor pity for their victims.

To tens of thousands that are killed, add hundreds of thousands that survive with feeble constitutions, and millions that grow up with constitutions not so strong as they should be; and you will have some idea of the curse inflicted on their offspring by parents ignorant of the laws of life. Do but consider for a moment that the regimen to which children are subject is hourly telling upon them to their life-long injury or benefit; and that there are twenty ways of going wrong to one way of going right; and you will get some idea of the enormous mischief that is almost everywhere inflicted by the thoughtless, haphazard system in common use. Is it decided that a boy shall be clothed in some flimsy short dress, and be allowed to go playing about with limbs reddened by cold? The decision will tell on his whole future existence—either in illnesses; or in stunted growth; or in deficient energy; or in a maturity less vigorous than it ought to have been, and consequent hindrances to success and happiness. Are children doomed to a monotonous dietary, or a dietary that is deficient in nutritiveness? Their ultimate physical power and their efficiency as men and women, will inevitably be more or less diminished by it. Are they forbidden vociferous play, or (being too ill-clothed to bear exposure,) are they kept in-doors in cold weather? They are certain to fall below that measure of health and strength to which they would else have attained. When sons and daughters grow up sickly and feeble, parents commonly regard the event as a misfortune—as a visitation of Providence. Thinking after the prevalent chaotic fashion, they assume that these evils come without causes; or that the causes are supernatural. Nothing of the kind. In some cases the causes are doubtless inherited; but in most cases foolish regulations are the causes. Very generally parents themselves are responsible for all this pain, this debility, this depression, this misery. They have undertaken to control the lives of their off-

spring from hour to hour; with cruel carelessness they have neglected to learn anything about those vital processes which they are unceasingly affecting by their commands and prohibitions; in utter ignorance of the simplest physiologic laws, they have been year by year undermining the constitutions of their children; and have so inflicted disease and premature death, not only on them but on their descendants.

Equally great are the ignorance and the consequent injury, when we turn from physical training to moral training. Consider the young mother and her nursery legislation. But a few years ago she was at school, where her memory was crammed with words, and names, and dates, and her reflective faculties scarcely in the slightest degree exercised—where not one idea was given her respecting the methods of dealing with the opening mind of childhood; and where her discipline did not in the least fit her for thinking out methods of her own. The intervening years have been passed in practicing music, in fancy-work, in novel-reading, and in party-going: no thought having yet been given to the grave responsibilities of maternity; and scarcely any of that solid intellectual culture obtained which would be some preparation for such responsibilities. And now see her with an unfolding human character committed to her charge—see her profoundly ignorant of the phenomena with which she has to deal, undertaking to do that which can be done but imperfectly even with the aid of the profoundest knowledge. She knows nothing about the nature of the emotions, their order of evolution, their functions, or where use ends and abuse begins. She is under the impression that some of the feelings are wholly bad, which is not true of any one of them; and that others are good, however far they may be carried, which is also not true of any one of them. And then, ignorant as she is of that with which she has to deal, she is equally ignorant of the effects that will be produced on it by this or that treatment. What can be more inevitable than the disastrous results we see hourly arising? Lacking knowledge of mental phenomena, with their causes and consequences, her interference is frequently more mischievous than absolute passivity would have been. This and that kind of action, which are quite normal and beneficial, she perpetually thwarts; and so diminishes the child's happiness and profit, injures its temper and her own, and produces estrangement. Deeds which she thinks it desirable to encourage, she gets performed by threats and bribes, or by exciting a desire for applause: considering little what the inward motive may be, so long as the outward conduct conforms; and thus cultivating hypocrisy, and fear, and selfishness, in place of good feeling. While insisting on truthfulness, she constantly sets an example of untruth, by threatening penalties which she does not inflict. While inculcating self-control, she hourly visits on her little ones angry scoldings for acts that do not call for them. She has not the remotest idea that in the nursery, as in the world, that alone is the truly salutary discipline which visits on all conduct, good and bad, the natural consequences, pleasurable or painful, which in the nature of things such conduct tends to bring. Being thus without theoretic guidance, and quite incapable of guiding herself by tracing the mental processes going on her children, her rule is impulsive, inconsistent, mischievous, often, in the highest degree; and would indeed be generally ruinous, were it not that the overwhelming tendency of the growing mind to assume the moral type of the race, usually subordinates all minor influences.

And then the culture of the intellect—is not this, too, mismanaged in a

similar manner? Grant that the phenomena of intelligence conform to laws; grant that the evolution of intelligence in a child also conforms to laws; and it follows inevitably that education can be rightly guided only by a knowledge of these laws. To suppose that you can properly regulate this process of forming and accumulating ideas, without understanding the nature of the process, is absurd. How widely, then, must teaching as it is, differ from teaching as it should be; when hardly any parents, and but few teachers, know anything about psychology. As might be expected, the system is grievously at fault, alike in matter and in manner. While the right class of facts is withheld, the wrong class is forcibly administered in the wrong way and in the wrong order. With that common limited idea of education which confines it to knowledge gained from books, parents thrust primers into the hands of their little ones years too soon, to their great injury. Not recognizing the truth that the function of books is supplementary—that they form an indirect means to knowledge when direct means fail—a means of seeing through other men what you can not see for yourself; they are eager to give second-hand facts in place of first-hand facts. Not perceiving the enormous value of that spontaneous education which goes on in early years—not perceiving that a child's restless observation, instead of being ignored or checked, should be diligently administered to, and made as accurate and complete as possible; they insist on occupying its eyes and thoughts with things that are, for the time being, incomprehensible and repugnant. Possessed by a superstition which worships the symbols of knowledge instead of the knowledge itself, they do not see that only when his acquaintance with the objects and processes of the household, the streets, and the fields, is becoming tolerably exhaustive—only then should a child be introduced to the new sources of information which books supply: and this, not only because immediate cognition is of far greater value than mediate cognition; but also, because the words contained in books can be rightly interpreted into ideas, only in proportion to the antecedent experience of things. Observe next, that this formal instruction, far too soon commenced, is carried on with but little reference to the laws of mental development. Intellectual progress is of necessity from the concrete to the abstract. But regardless of this, highly abstract subjects, such as grammar, which should come quite late, are begun quite early. Political geography, dead and uninteresting to a child, and which should be an appendage of sociological studies, is commenced betimes; while physical geography, comprehensible and comparatively attractive to a child, is in great part passed over. Nearly every subject dealt with is arranged in abnormal order: definitions, and rules, and principles being put first, instead of being disclosed, as they are in the order of nature, through the study of cases. And then, pervading the whole, is the vicious system of rote learning—a system of sacrificing the spirit to the letter. See the results. What with perceptions unnaturally dulled by early thwarting, and a coerced attention to books—what with the mental confusion produced by teaching subjects before they can be understood, and in each of them giving generalizations before the facts of which these are the generalizations—what with making the pupil a mere passive recipient of other's ideas, and not in the least leading him to be an active inquirer or self-instructor—and what with taxing the faculties to excess; there are very few minds that become as efficient as they might be. Examinations being once passed, books are laid aside; the greater part of what has been acquired, being unorganized, soon drops out of



recollection; what remains is mostly inert—the art of applying knowledge not having been cultivated; and there is but little power either of accurate observation or independent thinking. To all which add, that while much of the information gained is of relatively small value, an immense mass of information of transcendent value is entirely passed over.

Thus we find the facts to be such as might have been inferred *a priori*. The training of children—physical, moral, and intellectual—is dreadfully defective. And in great measure it is so, because parents are devoid of that knowledge by which this training can alone be rightly guided. What is to be expected when one of the most intricate of problems is undertaken by those who have given scarcely a thought to the principles on which its solution depends? For shoe-making or house-building, for the management of a ship or a locomotive-engine, a long apprenticeship is needful. Is it, then, that the unfolding of a human being in body and mind, is so comparatively simple a process, that any one may superintend and regulate it with no preparation whatever? If not—if the process is with one exception more complex than any in Nature, and the task of administering to it one of surpassing difficulty; is it not madness to make no provision for such a task? Better sacrifice accomplishments than omit this all-essential instruction. When a father, acting on false dogmas adopted without examination, has alienated his sons, driven them into rebellion by his harsh treatment, ruined them, and made himself miserable; he might reflect that the study of Ethology would have been worth pursuing, even at the cost of knowing nothing about *Æschylus*. When a mother is mourning over a first-born that has sunk under the sequelæ of scarlet-fever—when perhaps a candid medical man has confirmed her suspicion that her child would have recovered had not its system been enfeebled by over-study—when she is prostrate under the pangs of combined grief and remorse; it is but a small consolation that she can read Dante in the original.

Thus we see that for regulating the third great division of human activities, a knowledge of the laws of life is the one thing needful. Some acquaintance with the first principles of physiology and the elementary truths of psychology is indispensable for the right bringing up of children. We doubt not that this assertion will by many be read with a smile. That parents in general should be expected to acquire a knowledge of subjects so abstruse, will seem to them an absurdity. And if we proposed that an exhaustive knowledge of these subjects should be obtained by all fathers and mothers, the absurdity would indeed be glaring enough. But we do not. General principles only, accompanied by such detailed illustrations as may be needed to make them understood, would suffice. And these might be readily taught—if not rationally, then dogmatically. Be this as it may, however, here are the indisputable facts:—that the development of children in mind and body rigorously obeys certain laws; that unless these laws are in some degree conformed to by parents, death is inevitable; that unless they are in a great degree conformed to, there must result serious physical and mental defects; and that only when they are completely conformed to, can a perfect maturity be reached. Judge, then, whether all who may one day be parents, should not strive with some anxiety to learn what these laws are.

#### KNOWLEDGE REQUISITE FOR THE FUNCTIONS OF THE CITIZEN.

5. That which it really concerns us to know [to discharge well the functions

of the citizen,] is the natural history of society. We want all facts which help us to understand how a nation has grown and organized itself. Among these, let us of course have an account of its government; with as little as may be of gossip about the men who officered it, and as much as possible about the structure, principles, methods, prejudices, corruptions, &c., which it exhibited: and let this account not only include the nature and actions of the central government, but also those of local governments, down to their minutest ramifications. Let us of course also have a parallel description of the ecclesiastical government—its organization, its conduct, its power, its relations to the state: and accompanying this, the ceremonial, creed, and religious ideas—not only those nominally believed, but those really believed and acted upon. Let us at the same time be informed of the control exercised by class over class, as displayed in all social observances—in titles, salutations, and forms of address. Let us know, too, what were all the other customs which regulated the popular life out of doors and in-doors: including those which concern the relations of the sexes, and the relations of parents to children. The superstitions, also, from the more important myths down to the charms in common use, should be indicated. Next should come a delineation of the industrial system: showing to what extent the division of labor was carried; how trades were regulated, whether by caste, guilds, or otherwise; what was the connection between employers and employed; what were the agencies for distributing commodities, what were the means of communication; what was the circulating medium. Accompanying all which should come an account of the industrial arts technically considered: stating the processes in use, and the quality of the products. Further, the intellectual condition of the nation in its various grades should be depicted: not only with respect to the kind and amount of education, but with respect to the progress made in science, and the prevailing manner of thinking. The degree of æsthetic culture, as displayed in architecture, sculpture, painting, dress, music, poetry, and fiction, should be described. Nor should there be omitted a sketch of the daily lives of the people—their food, their homes, and their amusements. And lastly, to connect the whole, should be exhibited the morals, theoretical and practical, of all classes; as indicated in their laws, habits, proverbs, deeds. All these facts, given with as much brevity as consists with clearness and accuracy, should be so grouped and arranged that they may be comprehended in their *ensemble*; and thus may be contemplated as mutually dependent parts of one great whole. The aim should be so to present them that we may readily trace the *consensus* subsisting among them; with the view of learning what social phenomena co-exist with what others. And then the corresponding delineations of succeeding ages should be so managed as to show us, as clearly as may be, how each belief, institution, custom, and arrangement was modified; and how the *consensus* of preceding structures and functions was developed into the *consensus* of succeeding ones. Such alone is the kind of information respecting past times, which can be of service to the citizen for the regulation of his conduct.

#### ÆSTHETICS, OR EDUCATION FOR RELAXATIONS, AMUSEMENTS, ETC.

6. After considering what training best fits for self-preservation, for the attainment of sustenance, for the discharge of parental duties, and for the regula-

tion of social and political conduct; we have now to consider what training best fits for the miscellaneous ends not included in these—for the enjoyments of Nature, of Literature, and of the Fine Arts, in all their forms. Postponing them as we do to things that bear more vitally upon human welfare; and bringing everything, as we have, to the test of actual value; it will perhaps be inferred that we are inclined to slight these less essential things. No greater mistake could be made, however. We yield to none in the value we attach to æsthetic culture and its pleasures. Without painting, sculpture, music, poetry, and the emotions produced by natural beauty of every kind, life would lose half its charm. So far from thinking that the training and gratification of the tastes are unimportant, we believe the time will come when they will occupy a much larger share of human life than now. When the forces of Nature have been fully conquered to man's use—when the means of production have been brought to perfection—when labor has been economized to the highest degree—when education has been so systematized that a preparation for the more essential activities may be made with comparative rapidity—and when, consequently, there is a great increase of spare time; then will the poetry, both of Art and Nature, rightly fill a large space in the minds of all.

But it is one thing to admit that æsthetic culture is in a high degree conducive to human happiness; and another thing to admit that it is a fundamental requisite to human happiness. However important it may be, it must yield precedence to those kinds of culture which bear more directly upon the duties of life. As before hinted, literature and the fine arts are made possible by those activities which make individual and social life possible; and manifestly, that which is made possible, must be postponed to that which makes it possible. A florist cultivates a plant for the sake of its flower; and regards the roots and leaves as of value, chiefly because they are instrumental in producing the flower. But while, as an ultimate product, the flower is the thing to which everything else is subordinate, the florist very well knows that the root and leaves are intrinsically of greater importance; because on them the evolution of the flower depends. He bestows every care in rearing a healthy plant; and knows it would be folly if, in his anxiety to obtain the flower, he were to neglect the plant. Similarly in the case before us. Architecture, sculpture, painting, music, poetry, &c., may be truly called the efflorescence of civilized life. But even supposing them to be of such transcendent worth as to subordinate the civilized life out of which they grow (which can hardly be asserted,) it will still be admitted that the production of a healthy civilized life must be the first consideration; and that the knowledge conducing to this must occupy the highest place.

However fully we may admit that extensive acquaintance with modern languages is a valuable accomplishment, which, through reading, conversation, and travel, aids in giving a certain finish; it by no means follows that this result is rightly purchased at the cost of that vitally important knowledge sacrificed to it. Supposing it true that classical education conduces to elegance and correctness of style; it can not be said that elegance and correctness of style are comparable in importance to a familiarity with the principles that should guide the rearing of children. Grant that the taste may be greatly improved by reading all the poetry written in extinct languages; yet it is not to be inferred that such improvement of taste is equivalent in value to an acquaintance

with the laws of health. Accomplishments, the fine arts, *belles-lettres*, and all those things which, as we say, constitute the efflorescence of civilization, should be wholly subordinate to that knowledge and discipline in which civilization rests. *As they occupy the leisure part of life, so should they occupy the leisure part of education.*

#### THE KNOWLEDGE REQUISITE FOR PURPOSES OF DISCIPLINE.

7. We may be quite sure that the acquirement of those classes of facts which are most useful for regulating conduct, involves a mental exercise best fitted for strengthening the faculties. It would be utterly contrary to the beautiful economy of Nature, if one kind of culture were needed for the gaining of information and another kind were needed as a mental gymnastic. Everywhere throughout creation we find faculties developed through the performance of those functions which it is their office to perform; not through the performance of artificial exercises devised to fit them for these functions. The Red Indian acquires the swiftness and agility which make him a successful hunter, by the actual pursuit of animals; and by the miscellaneous activities of his life, he gains a better balance of physical powers than gymnastics ever give. That skill in tracking enemies and prey which he has reached by long practice, implies a subtlety of perception far exceeding anything produced by artificial training. And similarly throughout. From the Bushman, whose eye, which being habitually employed in identifying distant objects that are to be pursued or fled from, has acquired a quite telescopic range, to the accountant whose daily practice enables him to add up several columns of figures simultaneously, we find that the highest power of a faculty results from the discharge of those duties which the conditions of life require it to discharge. And we may be certain, *a priori*, that the same law holds throughout education. The education of most value for guidance, must at the same time be the education of most value for discipline.

#### THE PROMINENT VALUE OF SCIENCE.

8. To the question—What knowledge is of most worth?—the uniform reply is—Science. This is the verdict on all the counts. For direct self-preservation, or the maintenance of life and health, the all-important knowledge is—Science. For that indirect self-preservation which we call gaining a livelihood, the knowledge of greatest value is—Science. For the due discharge of parental functions, the proper guidance is to be found only in—Science. For that interpretation of national life, past and present, without which the citizen can not rightly regulate his conduct, the indispensable key is—Science. Alike for the most perfect production and highest enjoyment of art in all its forms, the needful preparation is still—Science. And for purposes of discipline—intellectual, moral, religious—the most efficient study is, once more—Science.

And yet the knowledge which is of such transcendent value is that which, in our age of boasted education, receives the least attention. While this which we call civilization could never have arisen had it not been for science; science forms scarcely an appreciable element in what men consider civilized training. Though to the progress of science we owe it, that millions find support where once there was food only for thousands; yet of these millions but a few

thousands pay any respect to that which has made their existence possible. Though this increasing knowledge of the properties and relations of things has not only enabled wandering tribes to grow into populous nations, but has given to the countless members of those populous nations comforts and pleasures which their few naked ancestors never even conceived, or could have believed, yet is this kind of knowledge only now receiving a grudging recognition in our highest educational institutions.

# XIV. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

## C.

### CADALSO, JOSEJ

*Cartas Marruecas*, Boston 1843.\*

### CÆSAR, CAIUS JULIUS,

*Opera quæ extant*, (Delph. edition,) by Godwin, New York 1st edition 1850; (Phila. 1834)\*

Same, revised by Clark, and Mann, Phila. 1847.\*

*Commentarii, cum Notis multis*, Frankfurt 1675.

de Bello Gallico, &c., by Campbell, New York 1st edition 1802.

by Patterson, New York 1829.

*Commentarii de Bello Gallico*, by Anthon, New York (1846 '32) 1850.

by de Boissier, Paris 1787.

by Andrews, Boston (1845) 1851; (Phila.)

by Brooks, New York.\*

by Leverett, Boston (1829) 1836.

by Schmitt and Zumpt, Philadelphia 1847

1850; (New York.)

*Books I. to IV.* literal translation, Beaver, Pa.\*

*Commentaries*, edited by Bullion, New York.\*

by Mair.\*

by Spencer, New York 1850.\*

with interlinear trans. by Hamilton, revised by Clark, Phila. 1857.\*

translated by Duncan, New York, 2 vols., '33;

literally translated, New York 1855.\*

*Invasion of Britain*, with interl. translation, London 10th edition 1855.

### CÆSAR, J. S.

*The Ready Calculator of Interest*, Reading, Pa. 1st edition 1816.\*

### CAIRNS, J. M.,

*Greek Lexicon*. See *J. Donnegan*.

### CALCOTT, J. W.,

*The Musical Grammar*, Boston 1830.\*

### CALDERON DE LA BARCA,

*Selección de Obras*, Boston 1843.\*

### CALDWELL, MERRITT,

*Practical Manual of Elocution*, Philadelphia (1857) 1860; (Portland.)

### CALKINS, N. A.,

*Manual of Object Lessons for Teachers*, &c., New York 5th edition 1892.\*

### CALKINS, N. A., & W. T. ADAMS,

*The Universal Speaker*, Boston.\*

### CALKINS, N. A., & M. WILLSON,

*Series of Colored School and Family Charts*, New York 1862.

### CALL, OSMAN,

*Decimal Arithmetic*, Hancock Factories, New Hampshire 1st edition 1842.

### CALENDER, B. FRANKLIN,

*Geometry applied to Mensuration*, New York 1836.\*

### CALCOTT, T. C.,

*Handbook of Universal Geography*, New York 1854.\*

*Cyclopedia of Geography*, New York 1854.\*

### CAMMONT, E.

*Adam's First Book in Arithmetic*, in French, New York 1855.\*

### CAMP, D. N.,

*Primary Geography*, Hartford, 1861.

*Geography*, with Key to Mitchell's Maps, Hfd. '59.\*\*

### CAMP, NORMAN W.

(Laporte's) *New Guide to Pronouncing and Reading French*, New York 1853; (Boston.)

### CAMP,

*Robinson der Jüngere*, edited by J. Hamilton, Edinburgh 1827.

### CAMPBELL, GEORGE,

*The Philosophy of Rhetoric*, (London 1776;) Philadelphia new edition 1818; New York new edition 1850; (Boston.)

### CAMPBELL, M.

*César de Bello Gallico et Civ. Pomp., &c.*, New York 1st edition 1802.

*Cicero, Orationes Selectæ quædam*, &c., Maronville's edition, New York 1st edition 1804.

### CAMUS, NICHOLAS,

*Tenentii Comediarum Sex*, (Delph. edition,) London 1758

### CANNON, C. J.,

*Practical English Spelling Book*, New York 1852.

### CANTEL, PETER JOSEPH,

*Justinus, de Historicis Philippicis*, (Delph. edition,) Dublin 1790; 2nd edition 1811.

### CANTURINI, S.,

*Della Maniera de la Belle Lettre*, di Rollin, Venice '03.

### CAPERS,

*Catechism for the use of Missionaries*, New York.\*

### CARCASSI,

*The Guitar Instructor*, New York.\*

Same, abridged, New York.\*

### CARDELL, W. S.,

*Analytical Spelling Book*, (J. F. Jones,) New York 1823; 2nd edition 1824; (Philadelphia.)

*Moral Monitor*; *Reading Lessons*, New York 1825.\*

*Story of Jack Halyard*, N. York 3rd ed. 1825; Phila.\*

*Middle Class Reader*, (the same,) Philadelphia new edition 1855.

*The Sailor Boy*, for French translation, by Girault, Philadelphia 1835.\*

*Elements of English Grammar*, New York 1826; (Hartford 3rd ed. 27;) Philadelphia 4th edition '38.

*Philosophical Grammar of English Language*, Phila. 1847 '31.\*

*Essay on Language*, New York 1825.\*

### CAREM,

*An English Grammar*.\*

### CAREY, JOHN,

*Latin Dictionary*. See *Ainsworth*.

### CAREY,

*American Pocket Atlas*, Philadelphia 4th edition 1813.

### CARHART,

*Melodeon Instructor*, New York.\*

### CARLISLE, W.,

*Introduction to Practical Mathematics*, Philadelphia.\*

### CARLL, M. M.,

*Mother's Manual and Infant Instructor*, New York;

Phila. 1852.\*

*Child's Book of Natural History*, New York.\*

*Philadelphia Expositor*; *Radical or Analytical Ex-*

*positor*, Philadelphia 1834.\*

*English Grammar*.\*

*Arithmetic*, Philadelphia.\*

### CARLETON, OSGOOD,

*Compendium of Practical Arithmetic*, Boston 1st edition 1810.

### CARPENTER, LANT,

*Introduction to the Geography of the New Testament*,

Cambridge, 1st edition 1811.

*Principles of English Grammar*, London 1840.

### CARPENTER, THOMAS,

*Scholar's Spelling Assistant*, New York 1st edition 1839; (1852)

*CARPENTER, WILLIAM B.*

*Elements, or Manual of Human Physiology*, N. York new edition 1854.\*

*Principles of Human Physiology*, ed. by F. G. Smith, Phila.\*

*Principles of Comparative Physiology*, Phila.\*

*" General Physiology*, Phila.\*

*Popular Treatise on Vegetable Physiology*, Philadel- 1847.\*

### CARPENTER,

*Spelling Book*, Charleston, S. C.\*

*Catechism*, Boston.\*



- CARRENO, J. DE LA C., & R. PALENZUELA,  
Oleander's English Grammar for Spaniards, New  
York.\*
- Key to do., New York.\*
- CARROLL, J. E.,  
Complete Key to Mitchell's School Geography, Phila-  
delphia 1847.\*
- CARROLL, JAMES,  
American Criterion of English Grammar, New London  
1795.\*\*
- CARSON, BRADLEY C.,  
Rule for the Relative, qui, quæ, quod.\*
- CARTEE, C. S.,  
Elements of Map Drawing, Boston 1839.  
Elements of Physical and Political Geography, Bos-  
ton 1855.  
School Atlas of Physical Geography, Boston 1856.  
New Series of Geographical Questions, Prov. 1832.  
Natural Philosophy. See Thomas Tate.
- CARTER, J. G.,  
Geography of Middlesex County, Cambridge 1830.\*
- CARTER, J. G., & W. H. BROOKS,  
Geography of Massachusetts, Boston 1830.\*  
Geography of Worcester County, Boston 1830.\*  
Geography of Essex County, Boston 1830.\*
- CARY, HENRY,  
Herodotus, literally translated, New York.\*
- CASSELY, PATRICK S.,  
Greek Reader. See F. Jacobs.  
Latin Prose, New York; Philadelphia 1858.\*
- CASTALIO, —,  
Dialogues.\*
- CATULLUS,  
Poems, edited by F. M. Hubbard, Bost.; Phila. 1836.\*  
Selections, edited by Cooksley, and revised by Brasted,  
New York 1849.\*
- CAUCHON, JOSEPH,  
Notions Elementaires de Physique, Quebec, 1841.
- CAULKINS, MISS F. M.,  
Bible Primer. Part I, Primer of the Pentateuch, New  
York 1854.\*
- CAVALLO, TIBERIUS,  
Complete Treatise on Electricity, 3 vols., 1813.\*  
Elements of Natural Philosophy, 2 vols., Phila. 3rd  
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- CECIL, E. G.,  
Dates, Battles and Events of Modern History, (Anon.)  
London 1837.
- CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, MIGUEL DE,  
Don Quixote, New York.\*  
Doa Quijote de la Mancha, edited by Sales, 2 vols.,  
Boston 1837; 3rd edition 1813.\*
- CHALLENGE, JAMES,  
Christian Morals, Philadelphia 1859.\*
- CHALMERS, ALEXANDER,  
English Dictionary. See Samuel Johnson.
- CHALONE, —,  
Precursor for the Piano Forte, New York.\*
- CHAMBAUD, LEWIS,  
Grammar of French Tongue, London (3rd ed. 1772;)  
6th edition 1775; 10th edition 1790.  
Abridgment of do., by N. Fauson, Cambridge 1815.  
Exercises in French, London (4th edition 1772; new  
edition 1775; 13th edition 1792.  
French Idioms.\*  
Fables Choieses à Usage des Enfants.\*  
Treasure of French and English Languages, London  
4th edition 1772; (7th edition 1792; 11th ed. '01.
- CHAMBERLAIN, N. B. & D.,  
Catalogue of Pneumatic Instruments and Experiments,  
Boston 1844.
- CHAMBERS, W. & R., *Educational Course*.  
Treasury of Knowledge, in 1 vol., Part I, edited by  
Brown and Cubb, New York 2nd edition 1833.  
Part II., edited by Williams, New York 4th edition  
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Part III., New York 2nd edition 1833.  
See D. M. Rees.
- CHAMPLIN, J. T.,  
Text-Book in Intellectual Philosophy, Boston 1860.  
First Principles of Ethics, Boston 1861.
- Pract. Grammar of the English Language, N. Y. '50.\*  
Latin Grammar and Exercises. See Kuhnner.  
Arnold's Introduction to Greek Prose Composition,  
Boston 1830.\*
- Short and Complete Greek Grammar, New York.\*  
Æschines on the Crown, Cambridge 1850.\*  
Demosthenes on the Crown, Boston and Cambridge 1st  
edition 1843; 3rd edition 1850.
- CHANDLER, JOSEPH R.,  
Common School Grammar of English Language,  
Philadelphia (1821) '47.\*\*
- CHANNING, W. E.,  
Catechism of the Elements of Religion and Morality,  
Boston 1826.\*
- CHANNING, WILLIAM H.,  
Jouffroy's Introduction to Ethics, 2 vols., Bost. 1840.\*
- CHAPIN, A. B.,  
English Spelling Book, New Haven and Philadelphia  
1st edition 1841.\*\*
- Classical Spelling Book, N. York (1842) 1845; (Phila.)  
Key to do., no date.
- CHAPIN, JOEL,  
Practical English Grammar for Beginners, N. Haven  
1851.  
Analytical and Philosophical Grammar, New Haven  
revised edition 1851; (New York; Springfield 1st  
edition 1842.)  
Guide to Correct Punctuation, (Anon.) Bridgeport,  
1850.\*\*
- CHAPIN, WILLIAM,  
Complete Reference Gazetteer of United States, New  
York.\*
- CHAPMAN, A. W.,  
Flora of the Southern United States, N. Y. 1860.\*
- CHAPMAN, J. G.,  
American Drawing Book, New York.\*  
" " " for Schools, Hartford 1854.\*  
Drawing Copy Book, New York.\*
- CHAPSAL, —,  
Leçons et Modèles de Littérature Française, N. York.\*
- CHAPTAL, J. A.,  
Elements of Chemistry, 1813.\*  
Chemistry applied to Agriculture, Hartford; N. York.\*
- CHARISIUS, F. S.,  
Arts Grammaticæ Libri V., (Grammatici Latini, by  
Keil,) Leipzig 1836.
- CHASE, PLINY B.,  
Elements of Arithmetic, Part I. Phila. 1st ed. '44.\*\*  
" " " Part II., Phila. 1844.\*\*  
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- CHASE, P. E. & HORACE MANN,  
Arithmetic Practically Applied, Part I., Phila. 1850.\*  
" " " Part II., Phila. 1850.\*  
" " " Part III., Phila. '50.\*  
Key to Parts I. and II., Philadelphia 1845.\*
- CHASE, R. H.,  
Works of Horace, Maclean's edition revised, Cam-  
bridge 1836 (1857.)
- CHASE, STEPHEN,  
Algebra, New York 1849.
- CHASE, T.,  
Treatise on Algebra, New York.\*  
Cicero on the Immortality of the Soul, &c., Cam-  
bridge 1851.\*
- CHASE, WILLIAM S.,  
Modern French Literature. See De Véricour.
- CHATEAUBRIAND, —,  
Atala, René, New York.\*
- CHAUVENET, W.,  
Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Phila. (3rd edition  
1830 '54; 5th edition 1860.
- CHEEVER, EZEKIEL,  
Short Introduction to Latin Tongue, (Lat. Accidence.)  
London (1690;) 4th edition 1734; (Boston 17th  
edition 1783, 1791, 1838.)
- CHEEVER, GEORGE B.,  
Studies in Poetry, Boston 1829 '30.\*
- CHEEVER, G. B., & J. E. SWEETSER,  
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Compendium of English Grammar, (Murray, abridged.)  
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- CHILDS, F. J.,**  
Latham's Elementary English Grammar, Cambridge  
1832.\*
- CHILDS, G.,**  
Elementary Drawing Book, New York.\*  
Drawing Book of Objects, Philadelphia.\*
- CHIPMAN, GEORGE,**  
The American Moralist, for Schools, Hallowell 1800.\*
- CHITTENDEN, W. W.,**  
Newton's Principia, translated by Motte, New York  
1st edition 1848.\*
- CROQUET, GUSTAVE,**  
First Lessons in French, New York.\*  
First Readings from Modern French Writers, N. Y.\*  
Easy Conversations in French, New York.\*  
Conversations, Dialogues, &c. in French, N. Y. 1851.  
Young Ladies' Guide to French Composition, New  
York 1851.
- CHURCH, A. E.,**  
Elements of Analytical Geometry, N. York 1851; 2nd  
edition 1854.\*  
" of Differential and Integral Calculus, New  
York 1842, '51, '55.\*
- CHURCH, E.,**  
French Bookken, Philadelphia.\*
- CICERO, MARCUS TULLIUS,**  
Opera omnia, 30 vols., Boston 1st American ed. '45.\*  
Orations quædam Selectæ, &c., (Delph. edition,) by  
Marcellus, London 8th edition 1760; New York  
2nd edition 1811; 3rd edition 1814.  
Same, edited by M. Campbell, New York 1st edition  
1904.  
by J. G. Smart, Phila. 1834.\*  
Orationes quædam Selectæ, edited by C. Folsom, Bos-  
ton 1836.  
Select Orations, translated, with the Original, by Dun-  
can, New Haven 1811; New York (1850); new edition 1860.  
by Arnold, revised by Johnson, N. York 1850, '52.\*  
with Interl. Translation, by Underwood, revised by  
Clark, Philadelphia.\*  
with literal Interlinear Translation, 1855.\*  
translated by C. D. Yonge, New York 1856.\*  
Orationes Selectæ XII., edited by Schmitz and Zumpt,  
Philadelphia 1850, 1859.
- Orations, edited by P. Bullion, New York.\***  
Literally translated New York.\*  
Orations, Offices, &c., translated by Duncan, 3 vols.,  
New York 1833.\*  
De Officiis, De Senectute, De Amicis, &c., London 1717  
(1722); Boston 1823.  
New edition with Valpy's Notes, Philadelphia 1858.\*  
De Officiis, by Anthon, from Holden's edition, New  
York 1st edition 1859.  
by C. K. Dillaway, Boston 1837; Philadelphia.\*  
by T. A. Thacher, New York 1853.  
by Valpy, Philadelphia.\*  
Literally translated by Edmonds, New York 1856.\*  
De Oratore, Lib. III., Edinburgh 1806.  
by Kingsley, New Haven 1832; 2nd edition 1836;  
3rd edition 1839; (New York).\*  
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by C. K. Dillaway, Philadelphia.\*  
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by J. S. Watson, New York.\*  
translated by W. Guthrie, London 2nd edition 1755;  
(New York; Boston 1822).  
translated by ———, New York.\*  
De Oratore, Book I., Literal Translation, Atheos, Ga.\*  
De Senectute, De Amicitia, &c., by Anthon, New  
York (1832) '39.  
by Arnold, revised by Johnson, New York 1850.\*  
by C. K. Dillaway, Boston 1837; Philadelphia.\*  
De Senectute, by A. J. Lincoln, New York.\*  
by ———, New York.\*  
Cato Major; a Treatise on Old Age, with notes by  
Logan, Phila. 1744; Glasgow 1758.\*  
De Natura Deorum, edited by Dillaway, Phila.\*
- Brutus, sive De Claris Oratoribus,** by Beck, Bost. 1843;  
Cambridge '37.\*  
De Republica, Boston 1st edition 1823.  
The Republic, translated by Featherstonhaugh, New  
York 1838.\*  
Tusculanæ Disputationes, edited by Ashon, N. York  
(1852) '60.  
by Dillaway, Philadelphia.\*  
Literal translation, Princeton 1852.\*  
On the Immortality of the Soul, by Chass, Cam. '31.\*  
by M. Stuart, Andover 1833.\*  
Epistolarum Lib. XVI ad Famil., edited by Min-  
ellius, Rotterdam, 1704.  
Selectæ quædam Epistolæ, edited by Hurlburt, Phila-  
delphia 1836.  
Smart's translation, Philadelphia 1847.\*  
B. C. Smart's edition, Philadelphia.\*
- CLAGGETT, R.,**  
Easy Manual of Reading, Sneaking, &c., New York  
1846; 2nd edition 1846.\*\*  
American Expositor, or Intellectual Definer, Bost. '36;  
3rd edition 1839; New York 4th edition 1842 '51;  
(Philadelphia).\*\*  
Elucation made Easy, New York 1846 '56; Phila.\*
- CLAP, THOMAS,**  
Nature and Foundation of Morals, for Use of Students,  
New Haven 1765.\*  
General View of Philosophy, or Introduction to the  
Arts and Sciences, 1743.\*
- CLARK, ALVA,**  
New System of Astronomy, N. York 7th edition 1833.
- CLARK, ARABELLA,**  
Rennie's Alphabet of Botany, New York 1833.\*
- CLARK, D. W.,**  
Elements of Algebra, New York.\*
- CLARK, JOHN,**  
Elements of Drawing and Perspective, edited by Reese,  
two parts, New York 2nd edition 1849.\*
- CLARK, L. F.,**  
The Child's Expositor, and S. S. Teacher's Assistant,  
Part I., Hartford 3rd edition 1832; (New York).  
Topics and References, for Woodbridge's Geography,  
2nd edition 1830.\*
- CLARK, SCHUYLER,**  
The American Linguist, or National Grammar, Prov.  
1830.\*\*
- CLARK, S. W.,**  
Etymological Chart, New York.\*  
Grammatical Chart, New York.\*  
Analysis of the English Language, New York 1851.\*  
First Lessons in English Grammar, New York 1857.  
Practical Grammar, (New English Grammar,) New  
York (1847); 2nd edition 1848; 4th edition 1849.  
Key to do.\*
- CLARK, THOMAS,**  
Practical and Progressive Latin Grammar, Elementary  
Course, Philadelphia.\*  
Cæsar, Delph. edition, improved, edited by Mann, Phila.  
1847.\*  
Cæsar, with Hamilton's translation, revised, Phila.  
1857.\*  
Cicero's Orations, with Underwood's translation, rev.,  
Philadelphia.\*  
Horace, with Sterling's translation, edited by Nuttall,  
revised, Phila.\*  
Ovid, with Hamilton's translation, revised, Phila.\*  
Sælus, " " " " Phila. 1857.\*  
Homer's Iliad, " " " " Phila.\*  
Xenophon's Anabasis, with translation, Phila.\*  
French Dictionary. See A. Boyer.
- CLARK, VICTORIANUS,**  
Rhyming Geography, Hartford 1st edition 1819.\*\*  
Topics to Woodbridge and Willard's Geography, Hart-  
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- CLARK, W.,**  
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*New Grammar of the Latin Tongue*, London 4th edition 1754.  
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*Colloquiorum Centuria*. See *Corderius*.  
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 " " " " by S. Clarke, Jr., 2 vols., London 6th edition 1760.  
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- CLEAVELAND, ANDREW, & N. C. BROOKS,**  
*The School Harmonist*, New York.\*
- CLEAVELAND, PARKER,**  
*Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology*, Boston 2nd edition 1832; (3rd edition 1836).
- CLENDINNING, —**  
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- CLEVELAND, A. B.**  
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- CLEVELAND, CHARLES C.,**  
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- CLEVELAND, CHARLES DEXTER,**  
*Hyems for Schools*, Philadelphia.\*  
*The National Orator*, N. York (1829); 2nd ed. 1832.  
*Compendium of English Literature*, Phila. (1847) '49.  
 " of American Literature, Phila.\*  
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*First Lessons in Latin*, (First Latin Book,) Bust. '29;  
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*Second Latin Book*, Jacob's Reader, Part I, Philadelphia 1847.\*  
*Third Latin Book*, Philadelphia 1846 (1857).  
*Grammar of the Latin Language*, (Adam's Grammar,) Hartford 1830; (Phila. 1817).  
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- CLEVELAND, H. R.**  
*Sallust, with English Notes*, Philadelphia.\*
- CLOWES, T.**  
*The Root Extractor*.\*
- CLUTE, J. J.**  
*School Geography*, New York 1833.
- COAR, THOMAS,**  
*A Grammar of the English Tongue*, London 1796.
- COATES, REYNELL,**  
*Physiology for Schools*, Philadelphia 1840; 3rd edition 1842.\*  
*First Lines of Physiology*, Philadelphia 7th edition 1850.\*  
*Syllabus of Lectures on Physiology*, Phila. 1840.  
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- COBB, E.**  
*Elements of the English Language*, Boston 1st edition 1820.\*\*  
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- COBB, LYMAN,**  
*Primer*, New York 1835.\*  
*Just Standard for Pronouncing English Language*, Ithaca revised edition 1825.
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## XV. MILITARY SYSTEM AND SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

### I. OUTLINE OF MILITARY SYSTEM.

THE Austrian Army is recruited by conscription, the period of service being for eight years, with two years in addition for the reserve; but such soldiers as wish it may generally obtain leave after six years' service. Those who serve eight years are understood to have a claim for employment on railways and in the custom-houses. Substitutes are allowed, but they are provided solely by the State, and the means used for supplying them is made an element towards securing good Non-Commissioned Officers for the Austrian Army, in the following manner.

The sum paid over by private individuals for avoiding service in the Army is £150 (1,500 florins,) and the Government, in providing a substitute, pays him the *interest* of this sum during his period of service, and the *capital* when it is completed. A good substitute is permitted to serve twice, and he may thus receive £300 (3,000 florins) when he quits the army. Generally speaking, the substitutes provided by the Government are good Non-Commissioned Officers, who by these means are induced to continue a length of time in the service.

The Officers are obtained during a state of peace, either from the Military Academies, or by direct entry as Cadets, after passing a slight examination, into the regiments of infantry and cavalry, in which capacity they perform the ordinary duties of soldiers, and no particular period of service is required in this grade. The entry as Cadets is by nomination, part by the Colonels, proprietors of Regiments; part consisting of those having claims on the Regiments; and part of those recommended from the ranks.

Those who join the Army from the Military Academies consist principally of the sons of military men, whose education is mainly provided for by the State, and of others who are placed there by means of funds provided by provinces, districts, municipalities, or private individuals.

Any Austrian subject has a *claim* for admittance, on payment of the annual sum prescribed by the regulations.

There is no fixed proportion existing between the Infantry and Cavalry officers supplied from the Military Academies, and those entering regiments directly as cadets, but it is understood that the former do not amount to more than one-twentieth or one-thirtieth of the latter.

The Artillery and Engineers are now entirely supplied with officers from the Military Academies.

There is no difference in the pay of officers of the same rank in the various arms in Austria.

Officers when not required are placed on half-pay, which is rather less than the half of their actual pay whilst serving. When an officer dies, his widow is not entitled to a pension, but the state provides for the education of the children; and to prevent distress, an officer is not permitted to marry unless he has a certain income, independent of his pay, for the maintenance of his wife.

The promotion in the Infantry and Cavalry is regimental, and usually by seniority; but there is no doubt that promotion by selection also takes place, though not in the regiment itself, the officer selected being promoted into another regiment. The promotion in the Artillery and Engineers is also by seniority, and by corps, and, until the Hungarian war, was exceedingly slow.

Although not actually sanctioned by the authorities, cases have occurred in the Austrian service where officers have purchased steps from others serving in *different* regiments to themselves in the following manner:—if any officer is about to retire from the service, the promotion in the regiment being by seniority, the officer whose turn it would be to obtain the promotion would frequently sell his right to a junior officer serving in another regiment, who would thus be promoted into the vacancy. We were informed that this system had formerly led to frequent duels between the officer obtaining the promotion, and those officers in the regiment whose prospects were directly injured, by the senior having sold his promotion, and thus stopped their advancement.

#### II. OUTLINE OF SYSTEM OF MILITARY EDUCATION.

Military education in Austria has been entirely remodeled since the Hungarian war, and is now conducted in a very regular and systematic manner under the sole control and supervision of the Fourth Section of the Supreme War Department, entitled "Military Schools."

The establishment consists besides of—

- 2 Majors of Infantry.
- 1 Captain of Artillery.

- 2 Captains of Infantry.  
 2 Lieutenants of Infantry.  
 2 Employés belonging to the Administration.  
 6 Clerks.  
 6 Messengers.

To show the great importance of the Fourth Section, it will only be necessary to state that the disbursements of the government for Military Education in Austria for the current year are estimated at £281,440, (2,814,400 florins,) without taking into consideration the sums contributed for foundations by provinces, districts, and private individuals, or of those received for the education of paying students. This sum of 2,814,400 florins is apportioned in the following manner—

	Florins.*	Number of Students.
Vienna Staff School,.....	43,000	30 Officers.
<b>ACADEMIES—</b>		
Wiener Neustadt, for Infantry and Cavalry,	256,000	400 Students.
Znaim, Engineers,.....	157,000	200
Olmütz, Artillery,.....	122,000	200
Trieste, Marine,.....	73,000	100
4 Cadet Houses, at 87,000f.,.....	348,000	800
<b>SCHOOL COMPANIES—</b>		
6 Infantry, at 33,000f.,.....	198,000	720
1 Cavalry, " 39,000f.,.....	39,000	60
2 Frontier, " 35,000f.,.....	70,000	240
<b>SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL COMPANIES—</b>		
5 Artillery, at 35,000f.,.....	175,000	600
1 Engineer, " 36,000f.,.....	36,000	120
1 Pioneer, " 36,000f.,.....	36,000	120
1 Flotilla, " 22,000f.,.....	22,000	60
1 Marine, " 40,000f.,.....	40,000	150
1 NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS' or TEACHERS' SCHOOL, WIENER NEUSTADT.	17,000	60
12 UPPER HOUSES OF EDUCATION, at 49,500f.,	594,000	2,400
12 UNDER HOUSES, " 25,700f.,	308,400	1,200
	2,534,400	7,430
Bureau of the Fourth Section,.....	280,000	
Total,.....	2,814,400=	£281,440

So that the annual cost to the state for the education of an officer student, cadet, non-commissioned officer, and boy in these various schools is as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Student Officer at the Staff School,.....	143	6	0
Student at the Engineer Academy,.....	78	10	0
"    "    Artillery Academy,.....	61	0	0
"    "    Infantry and Cavalry Academy,	64	0	0

\* A florin is equal to two shillings of English money.

	£	s.	d.
Student at the Marine Academy.....	48	6	0
Cadets at the four Cadet Houses.....	43	10	0
<b>SCHOOL COMPANIES—</b>			
An Infantry School Company Student.....	27	10	0
A Cavalry " " "	65	0	0
A Frontier " " "	29	4	0
An Artillery " " "	29	4	0
An Engineer " " "	30	0	0
A Pioneer " " "	30	0	0
A Flotilla " " "	36	12	0
A Marine " " "	26	12	0
A Non-Commissioned Officer at the Teachers' School....	28	6	0
A Boy at the Upper Houses of Education.....	29	14	0
Lower " " "	25	14	0

And thus, as the course of instruction is continued for four years in the Cadet Houses, four years in the Academies, and two years in the Staff School, the cost of training the Officers in the Austrian Army is—

	£
For an Officer of Artillery, about.....	420
“ “ “ Engineers.....	490
“ “ “ Infantry or Cavalry.....	430
“ “ “ Marine.....	370
“ “ “ the Staff.....	710

From the Bureau of this Section at Vienna all orders for the management, maintenance, discipline, studies, and regulation of the various Schools and Academies are issued; and all details relating to the progress of the several students and the results of their examinations are periodically sent and regularly examined.

THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTIONS FOR MILITARY EDUCATION.\*

The Imperial institutions for Military Education, are divided into Three Classes. They are—

**A. Such Institutions as are immediately intended for the education of pupils as Non-commissioned Officers; namely,**

- (1.) The Lower Military Houses of Education.
- (2.) The Upper Military Houses of Education.
- (3.) The School Companies.

**B. Institutions in which it is intended to educate pupils as Officers; namely,**

- (1.) The Cadet Institutions.  
(2.) The Military Academies.

\* The following account is translated from "Die Kaiserlich-Königlichen Militär-Bildungs-Anstalten, mit besonderer Rücksicht auf die Vorschriften für den Eintritt in dieselben, Zusammengestellt aus den allerhöchsten sanctionirten Reglements der Militär-Bildungs-Anstalten. Wien, 1854." (The Imperial Military Institutions for Education, with special reference to the conditions required for admission, compiled from the regulations sanctioned by His Majesty. Vienna, 1854.)

C. Such Institutions as partly give a special kind of instruction, and partly complete and carry out the previous education of Officers. These are—

- (1.) The Institution for Military Teachers.
- (2.) The Higher Course for the Artillery and Engineers.
- (3.) The War School.

In the institutions of the first and second class, education as well as instruction is given, but those of the third class are limited to instruction; accordingly, all that is said in the following pages with regard to the admission of pupils, and with regard to beneficial foundations, has no reference to institutions of the third class.

Although each of the first-named classes forms a complete whole in itself, yet they stand in close mutual relation to each other, inasmuch as the most distinguished pupils of the Lower Houses of Education pass into the Cadet Institutions; and in the same way the most distinguished scholars of the Scientific\* School Companies, viz., those of the Artillery, Engineers, Pioneers, Flotilla, and Marine Schools, may be transferred as attendant pupils† to the Academies; by this means they may obtain a right to a position in the Army as Officers.

So, on the other hand, insufficient progress may be a reason for scholars being removed from the Cadet Institutions and the Academies into the Upper Houses of Education and the School Companies.

By these regulations a road is opened for the advancement of any talent that may gradually develop itself; and at the same time the pupils of the Institutions for Higher Military Education are submitted to that process of elimination which is requisite for the success of these Institutions.

The pupils in the Institutions for Military Education are either foundation pupils,‡ or paying pupils; the first are divided into the

\* *Technische* (technical) is the original word. Compare its use in another matter; there are in the Artillery two services, the ordinary Campaigning Artillery and the Technical Artillery.

† *Frequentanten*, who frequent, attend, or visit the school.

‡ *Stiftlinge*, foundationers, and *Zahlende*, paying pupils, the first divided into, (1.) *Militär-Ararial* foundationers, who are, as a rule, sons of Soldiers and Officers, and are maintained at the expense of the Military Treasury, the *Arar*, or *Erarium*; (2.) Provincial foundationers, who are maintained by the interest of lands or money granted in favor of young men belonging to some particular province, Bohemia, Galicia, the Tyrol, Upper or Lower Austria, either by the Central Government (the State,) or by the Estates or Parliament (*Stände*) of the province; (3.) Private foundationers, under which name are included not only those maintained by moneys left by private individuals, but those also whose payments come from grants made by municipal and local corporations.



military or treasury foundation pupils, and the provincial and private foundation pupils.

The military or treasury places belong to the army; the claim for these depends upon the nature of the institution and the position of the parents. As a general rule, it may be laid down that children of officers are expected to remain up to eleven years of age under the care of their parents, whereas those of common soldiers may in the eighth year of their age be taken under the protection of the State.

The provincial foundations are bestowed upon the sons of the nobility, or of distinguished *employés* of the state belonging to the crown lands of the province. Private foundations are those established by private individuals or corporations, and the appointment to these depends upon the conditions laid down by the founder. The capital or property of these foundations is generally administered by the Supreme War Department.\*

Every Austrian subject may claim admission as a paying pupil, if the other conditions of admission are fulfilled in his case.

In the Lower Houses of Education there are only military or treasury places.

In the Upper Houses of Education there are 1,800 military places; the remaining 600 are filled up by pupils upon provincial or private foundations, and by paying pupils.

In the School Companies the number of the foundation places and paying places is not fixed.

In the Cadet Institutions and the Academies there are 900 full and 200 half military places, and 520 places for pupils on provincial and private foundations, and for paying pupils.†

A sum to cover the expenses is fixed in the case of the pupils on the provincial and private foundations, as also for the paying pupils, amounting in the Houses of Education and in the School Companies to 150 florins (15*l.*) per annum; in the Cadet Houses to 400 florins (40*l.*) per annum; in the Academies 600 florins (60*l.*) for each of the three first years, and 800 florins (80*l.*) for the last year. These payments will be subject to modifications, at considerable intervals of time, according to the price of articles of consumption, and will be drawn in the case of the pupils on the provincial foundations

\* The *Ober-Militär Commando*, or *Commandership-in-chief*, the Fourth Section of which has the charge of Military Education. *Commando* is the German word corresponding to *Commander*, as *Ministry* does to *Minister*, and may signify one or more persons, a single Officer, or a Board of Commissioners.

† Making a total of 1,620, to which may be added about 50, reserved for *Frequentanten* from the School Companies.

from the funds of the respective provinces, and in the case of the pupils of the private foundations, from the moneys belonging to the private foundations.

The capital for the provincial and private foundations must be duly secured and sufficient in amount to cover the fixed payments for the number of places determined upon. Supposing the sum contributed to be insufficient, the requisite sums must be obtained by deferring any further nominations.\* The proper sums in discharge of these contributions must be paid in advance, half-yearly, on the 1st of October and the 1st of April. Those which belong to the provincial foundations, and such private ones as are administered by trustees, must be paid into the nearest Military Chest.† In the case of those pupils who pay for themselves, the money must be sent precisely on the above-mentioned days to the Commandant, or Director of the School, without reference to the day on which the pupil may have entered the school. On the other hand, in cases where a pupil either is removed from or otherwise quits the institution before the natural time, restitution will be made of the corresponding proportion of the sum paid in advance.

For admission into a Military Educational Institution, the boy must first of all be of the age specified for the institution in question, and must further possess the proper bodily growth and strength corresponding to that age, and the prescribed amount of knowledge. Every boy who is to be offered as a candidate for a military place must first be registered, and this in the course of the same year for which his admission is desired. This registration must be made by the parents or guardians through the Commanding Officers of the Army,‡ or Army-Corps, or Military Government§ within whose district they are domiciled, or in case of their living in foreign parts, through the Austrian Legation of the country.

Applications thus made must state what is the institution, admission into which is desired, and must be accompanied by the following certificates:—1. Baptismal certificate. 2. Certificate of vaccination. 3. Certificate of bodily health, by a Military Surgeon. 4.

\* The interest, that is, will be allowed to accumulate, until a sufficient sum is provided to pay for the maintenance of a pupil.

† Such as exist in most large towns.

‡ There are four *Armies*; the First in the west, with its head-quarters at Vienna; the Second in Italy, with its head-quarters at Verona; and two others in the eastern provinces. Each of these is divided into a certain number of Army-Corps. The particulars may be seen in *Schematismus* or Military Calendar, and briefly in the *Almanach de Gotha*.

§ In those parts of the Empire, namely, in the so-called Military Frontiers, the old Turkish border, where the government is simply military.

The school certificate for the last half-yearly examination: And 5. On the reverse the following declaration:—

"I hereby pledge myself to surrender up my son (or ward) to the Imperial Military Service, in case of his being admitted into a Military Educational Institution; and I declare that I will under no pretext require his return."

The object of this declaration is, on the one hand, to secure permanent elements for the Military Educational Institutions, and to create in the minds of the relations of the candidates the seriousness of purpose so essential in the choice of a profession. The declaration will also serve to retain the pupils to a course, which they have usefully commenced, and to protect them from the consequences of hasty decisions on the part of their friends. On the other hand, if it appears manifest that a pupil has not the requisite inclination or qualification for the military service, his removal from the institution ensues with or without the request of his friends, as will be more fully explained further on.

The applications will be examined by the Commanding Officers of the Army, or the Army Corps, or Military Government, and after their revision the candidates will be registered and the petitioners duly informed.

Any changes which occur in the case of the registered candidate, or in his family circumstances, between the time of registration and of actual admission, are to be made known to the authorities before whom the application was brought.

The registers are to be submitted to the Supreme War Department in the middle of June, so that applications can be received by the Commanding Officers of the Army, or Army Corps, or Military Government, at the utmost only up to the end of May.

Appointments to the military places in the Houses of Education and the School Companies are made by the Supreme War Department; His Majesty the Emperor reserves for himself those in the Cadet Institutions and the Academies.

Vacancies in the provincial foundation places are advertised, and applications called for, by the Governors or by the Standing Committees of the Estates of the respective provinces.\*

All proposals made in this manner are forwarded to the Minister

\* The Governor or Lord Lieutenant (the *Statthalter*) is the ordinary representative of the Emperor in the various provinces composing the Empire. In his hands resides the usual administration of the government. The provinces have also their ancient Estates or Parliaments, Standing Committees of which might, under certain circumstances, sit at times when the Estates were not assembled.

of the Interior, and submitted by him for the sanction of His Majesty.

Appointments to the private foundations are made by the person specified by the founder; decisions of this kind are submitted on or before the 15th of June, to the Supreme War Department for their approval of the candidates and distribution of them into the various institutions.

If a candidate in whose case the prescribed conditions of admission are not fulfilled is nominated to a private foundation, and his nomination consequently not approved, a new nomination must be made.

Pupils who pay are appointed by the Supreme War Department.

The sanction of the appointments and the distribution of the candidates appointed in the various institutions, in the case of the military and the paying pupils, will be made known to them by the Commanding Officers of the Army, or Army Corps, or Military Government; in the case of the provincial foundations by the Minister of the Interior; and in the case of the private foundations by the trustees.

Candidates living in a foreign country will be informed by the Legation in that country.

Upon the appointment made to an entirely gratuitous place in a military educational institution, all payments of allowances for the education of children cease.\*

The conveyance of military foundation pupils to the school to which they are appointed will, if not provided for by the friends of the pupils, be made at the expense of the Military Treasury by the ordinary means of locomotion.

Trustworthy Non-commissioned Officers from the nearest detachment of troops should be selected by the military authorities for the conveyance and charge of the pupils; four or five being, according to the circumstances, committed to the care of a single superintendent.

The conveyance of all other pupils must be provided for by their friends.

Admission into the Military Educational Institutions takes place only at the commencement of the school year. Candidates admitted must present themselves in their respective institutions between the 15th and the 30th of September.

\* Small allowances, e. g. of 8*l.* for three years, are very generally made to the widows of officers, and occasionally to officers themselves, to assist them in securing a decent education for their children.

The Commanding Officers of the Army, or Army Corps, or Military Government have to take care that every candidate admitted to a military place shall, before leaving to join the institution, be a second time examined by an Army Surgeon, and shall only be allowed to proceed to the institution in case of his bodily qualifications being found perfectly sufficient.

Finally, the candidate upon presenting himself must be re-examined by the chief Medical Officer of the institution, and if he is hereby found to be unqualified for military education, will not be received.\*

Any Military Surgeon or Medical Officer who incurs the guilt of neglect of his duty in this particular will be held responsible.

Every candidate upon presenting himself will moreover undergo the prescribed examination in his previous studies, and if his previous education appears insufficient, his appointment will be cancelled.†

Pupils admitted after a private education into a Military Institution are provided by this institution with new linen and clothes. All clothes they bring with them are without exception to be returned to their friends, and an acknowledgment of the return given.

No pupil in any of the Military Institutions is allowed to possess any linen or clothes except what is provided; and the friends and relations are not to be called upon for any sort whatever of additional contribution. An amount of pocket-money, varying with the character of the institution, may be transmitted to the pupils through the hands of the authorities of the school; but this is entirely at the pleasure of the friends and relations; all necessities being provided by the institution.

The pocket-money can only be paid to the pupil through the Commanding Officer of the Institution or of the Company.

The amount allowed must depend on the conduct of the pupil, but must not, even in the Academies, exceed three florins (six shillings) a month.

The course of instruction given in the Military Educational Institutions is fixed by special tables drawn up for each institution. Special text-books, to be followed in the courses, are also appointed.

\* Thus, it will be seen, all candidates appointed to the military places in the schools are examined three times over by a medical officer. Where the State does not pay, in the case of provincial or private foundations, or of paying pupils, the same amount of precaution is not thought necessary.

† The difficulties of traveling appear to be considered in Austria too great to allow of any examination (competitive or otherwise) before the candidates provisionally admitted actually arrive at the school to which they are appointed; if ill qualified, they are dismissed with the chance of a second trial.

The tables drawn up to regulate the course of instruction are subject to such modifications as may be called for by the requirements of science and by improvements in the methods of teaching.

The scholars will also receive in the course of the year, more particularly in summer, and after the close of the examination, practical instruction suitable to the arm of the service for which they are destined.

Every September the pupils pass into the next succeeding yearly course.

In the same month the scholars quit the institutions, and are either placed in the army or transferred to other institutions. The conditions under which this is done are given in detail in the account of each institution.

The expenses of the conveyance of the pupils from one institution to another are borne by the Treasury.

Pupils who make no progress in scientific studies will be required to enlist in the army\* if old enough, and if not, will be removed to an inferior Military Educational Institution; or if they are already in one of the Houses of Education or School Companies, will be employed in learning some trade which will be of use in the army,† and when they have reached the proper age, will be enlisted.

Pupils whose want of bodily qualification unfits them for the army will be sent back to their parents or guardians. Those holding military places in the Academies, if their parents are entirely unable to provide for them, will receive a yearly pension of 150 florins (15*l.*) until they can be placed in some employment under the State at a salary at least equivalent to this sum.

Pupils out of the Military Houses of Education or School Companies, who are removed for want of bodily qualification, and whose parents are entirely unable to provide for them, will, according to their capacities, be placed either in the Accounts Department‡ or some similar Military Department, in the Geographical Institution, or as drummers or clerks in one of the higher Military Schools, or will be taught some trade for employment in the Outfit Department,§ or will be made teachers. If, however, the pupil's bodily disqualifica-

\* Will be *assentirt*, will take the oath. They are considered old enough for this at sixteen.

† Even clothes and shoes being made by soldiers; a considerable number of soldiers were found thus employed, for example, at the Artillery Academy at Olmütz, under the superintendence of a master workman, bearing a non-commissioned grade, that of a *prima-planist*, for whom, see a Note further on.

‡ *Militär Rechnungs Branche*.

§ *Monture Commission*, charged with the duty of providing arms, clothing, &c., for the army. There are several establishments in various parts of the Empire. One of the largest is at Stockerau, near Vienna.



tion be of a nature to incapacitate him for any of the above-mentioned employments, he will be removed at the expense of the Treasury into some Civil or Military Hospital.\*

If in moral respects a pupil is found to be a mischievous member of the institution, he may at any time in the course of any year be removed.

Pupils who pay, in case of their removal being found, for whatever reason, necessary, will be sent home to their friends, the consent of the friends being required before they can be either engaged as soldiers or removed to one of the lower institutions. The expenses already incurred will be deducted from the payment made in advance, and the balance repaid to the parents or guardians.

A pupil who for whatever reason has once been removed from a Military School can never be afterwards admitted into any one of them, and in case of his either then or afterwards enlisting in the army, he can not, under any pretext whatever, obtain the rank of Officer before the pupils of the year to which he belonged. This rule, in the case of pupils who have been transferred from a higher to a lower institution, even when they pass out of this latter in the regular course, must be observed in reference to the pupils of the year to which they belonged in the institution from which they were removed.†

#### A. SCHOOLS FOR NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS.

##### 1. *The Lower Military Houses of Education.*

The twelve Lower Military Houses of Education contain, as has been said, only military places.‡ These appertain, in the first instance, to the legitimate sons of all soldiers bearing arms,§ whether born in marriage of the first, or in marriage of the second degree.||

\* Into a *Siechen-haus*, a hospital for incurable cases; or an *Invaliden-haus*, for Invalids.

† A pupil who was removed from the Academy at Wiener Neustadt might, for example, enter the army as a simple Cadet, under the patronage of the Colonel of a regiment, and might, but for this rule, receive rapid promotion, and become the senior in rank of his comrades of the same year at the School. In like manner, a pupil removed from a Cadet Institution and transferred into a School Company, might, upon leaving that, under certain circumstances, outstrip his late comrades at the Cadet Institution.

‡ That is, all the pupils are of military or quasi-military birth, and the expense is borne by the State. Both these and the Upper Military Houses are to be reduced, it is said, to ten.

§ The whole body (*Mannschaft*) of soldiers bearing arms (*Feuerwehrstand*.)

|| Marriage of the first degree is that entered into with full permission. In this the wives live in the barracks, receive a certain amount of rations, their children are recognized, and in case of the father's death are admitted into the Orphan Schools. Soldiers, are, however, occasionally allowed to marry, on condition of surrendering every claim to the above-mentioned privileges. This constitutes marriage of the second degree.

Subordinately to these, a lawful claim exists in the following cases:—

1. Sons of soldiers serving in the Trabant Body Guard, the Court Watch, the Outfit Commission, and other military bodies.\*
2. Sons of fathers belonging to the Reserve,† without prejudice, however, to sons of soldiers in actual service.
3. Sons of invalided soldiers,‡ not only in cases where the father has already married at the date of his reception as invalided, but also in those where marriage has been subsequently permitted.
4. Sons of those who have either as substitutes or otherwise served double time, and are now in the employment in connection with the Court or Government, even in cases where marriage has been contracted after quitting the service.
5. Sons of men belonging to the military service, not included in the above-mentioned cases, namely, the sons of Prima-planists,§ Employés, and Officers.

In any large number of candidates special regard should be had to the sons of fathers who have been killed or invalided on the field; after these, to those who are orphans on both sides; then to the sons of substitutes and other soldiers in actual services; and last follow in order the sons of fathers either belonging to the Reserve or received as Invalides, or otherwise connected with the Military Service.

As the sons of Officers serving with the sword|| have a large number of places reserved for their benefit in the Cadet Institutions and the Academies, their admission into Military Houses of Education, more especially into the Lower House of Education, is only allowable when no prejudice is caused to the above-mentioned claimants, and as a general rule can only take place when they are orphans, or under special circumstances.

\* The *Trabanten-Leibgarde* and the *Hofburgwache* are Court troops. For the *Monture Commission*, see a previous Note.

† Soldiers enlist for eight years, and after this to the end of the tenth year are on the Reserve.

‡ That is, belonging to the Hospitals or *Hôtels des Invalides*, the *Invaliden-Häuser*, of which there are several.

§ Prima-planists, a name derived from *prima plana*, the first leaf of the list, is given to soldiers employed in various special duties, especially perhaps those not of a strictly military kind. The master tailors, master shoemakers, master farriers, are all *prima-planisten*. The surgeon's assistant ranks as such. The grade is superior to that of sergeant, but those who hold it are excluded from promotion to a commission.

|| This is a frequent phrase (*mit dem Degen dienende*) for active service.

The age of admission is the completion of the seventh year. Children under this age who are orphans on both sides, or whose fathers being widowers, have to serve in the field, will be received into the Orphan House at Vienna, and be transferred on completing their seventh year to the Lower Houses of Education. Children who have passed the prescribed age for admission into the first class of the Lower Houses of Education can only be admitted, in case of their possessing the requisite amount of knowledge, into the classes corresponding to their age, and in case of there being places vacant in these classes; any addition to the prescribed numbers in the respective years is not allowable.

The number of pupils in each of the Lower Houses of Education is fixed at 100. These 100 pupils are divided into four years, each year being as nearly as possible of the same numerical strength.

The command is held by a Subaltern Officer, to whom are attached for the religious education, the medical care, the discipline, and the instruction—

- 1 House Chaplain,
- 1 Army Surgeon,
- 4 Sergeants and Instructors,
- 4 Honorary Sergeants\* as Assistant Instructors,
- 1 Sergeant, as House Adjutant; and
- 6 Corporals, for the discipline.

Additional assistance may be procured for managing the house and attending on the pupils.

To conduct the instruction (which will be almost entirely addressed immediately to the senses of the children) class-teachers will be provided for each yearly course; and these, with the house chaplain and the medical officer, aided by assistant teachers, will give the pupils instruction in the following subjects:—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. German. 3. Natural History. 4. Geography.
5. Arithmetic, both ordinary and mental. 6. Writing. 7. Common Drawing.
8. First Notions of the Rules of Drill. 9. Gymnastic Exercises and Swimming.

#### 2. Upper Military Houses of Education.

These, twelve in number, form a continuation to the Lower Houses of Education, the pupils from which are admitted here at the close of their eleventh year.

At this age foundation pupils of every kind, as also paying pupils, may be admitted immediately from their parents' homes, only, however, into the first year's course, and after passing an examination in

\* *Feldwebel*, Sergeant; *quas Feldwebel*, Honorary Sergeant, with the title and distinction in the uniform, but without the pay.

the subjects taught in the Lower Houses of Education, to the same extent up to which they are taught in the second class of the ordinary elementary school.

The claim to a military place in an Upper House of Education, is similar to that for a military place in a Lower House of Education.

The number of pupils is fixed at 200 in each Upper House of Education, divided in like manner into four yearly courses.

The command is intrusted to a Captain, who is aided, for purposes of instruction and superintendence, by—

- 2 Subaltern Officers.
- 1 House Chaplain.
- 1 Army Surgeon.
- 1 Surgeon's Assistant.
- 4 Sergeants as Teachers.
- 2 Honorary Sergeants as Assistant Teachers.
- 1 Sergeant as House Adjutant.
- 8 Corporals, for discipline.

Additional assistance may be procured for managing the house and for attendance, upon the same scale as in the Lower Houses.

The instruction, as in all the Military Schools to be noticed henceforward, will be given by teachers specially assigned to each subject, and will include here the following subjects:—

1. Religious Knowledge.
2. German, with written compositions.
3. One of the other Languages of the Empire.
4. Natural History.
5. Geography.
6. History.
7. Arithmetic.
8. Military Rules and Regulations.
9. Rules of Drill, and first notions of the Rules of Military Exercise.
10. Writing.
11. Common Drawing.
12. Gymnastic Exercises, Single-stick,\* Swimming.

After completing their fourth year course, the pupils are transferred, according to their qualifications and their own wishes, into the School Company.

Entrance into the Marine School Company takes place at the end of the second year's course.

### 3. *The School Companies.*

The School Companies have the object of furnishing the different arms of the service with Non-commissioned Officers well educated, both practically and theoretically, and likely in the course of time to prove useful Commissioned Officers† in charge of the troops.

They are in all twenty in number:—

- 6 for the Infantry.
- 3 " Cavalry.

\* *Stock-fechten*, or staff-fencing; a sort of military single-stick, the staff used resembling a musket and bayonet in one piece, all of wood.

† *Truppen-Officiere*.

2	for the Frontier Troops.
5	" Artillery.
1	" Engineers.
1	" Pioneers.
1	" Flotilla.*
1	" the Marine Service.†

Under the general term of School Companies the School Squadrons (for the Cavalry) are included. The term Scientific School Companies applies only to those of the Artillery, Engineers, Pioneers, Flotilla, and Marine.

The scholars in the School Companies are either pupils or attendants. § The pupils are taken, as already described, from the Upper Houses of Education, after the close of their fourth year's course, (or, in the case of the Marine School Company, after that of the second,) or they come direct from places of private education.

The conditions for gratuitous admission from private educational institutions into the School Companies are similar to those for admission into the Houses of Education, with the difference, that in the School Companies the sons of officials in the civil service, who have served long and meritoriously, and are ill-provided for, may also claim military places.

The candidates must be not under fifteen and not above eighteen years of age; in the Marine School Company not under thirteen and not above fourteen.

The Attendant pupils (*frequentanten*) come from the soldiers of the Standing Army. ¶ They exist only in the School Companies of the Artillery, Engineers, Pioneers, and Flotilla; to be admissible, they must, as a rule, have passed with credit through the Non-commissioned Officer Schools of the Artillery or Engineer regiments, or of the Pioneer Corps or Flotilla Corps; they must have been not more than two years in the service; and not at the utmost be above the rank of an Upper Cannoneer, an Exempt, or an Upper Pioneer. ¶

\* For service on the Lower Danube, the Po, and the Italian Lakes and Lagoons.

† Both for service in the Fleet and in the Coast Defences.

‡ *Technische*, Technical or Artificer Companies.

§ *Zöglinge* and *Frequentanten*.

¶ The *Mannschaft*-stand is a term used to mean the whole body of Private Soldiers and Non-commissioned Officers.

¶ The Non-commissioned Officers in the Austrian service rank as follows:—

In the Infantry, Corporal, and Sergeant (*Feldwebel*.)

In the Cavalry, Corporal, and *Wachtmeister* :

In the Artillery, Corporal, and *Feuerwerker* :

But there are distinctions also. A private soldier who is exempted from certain duties, e. g. from standing sentry, bears the name of *Gefreite*, or Exempt, in the Infantry and in the Engineers; the corresponding rank to which in the Artillery is an Upper Cannoneer (*Ober-Canonier*), and in the Pioneers, an Upper Pioneer (*Ober-Pionier*.) These are in no case Non-commissioned Officers, though in the way to become so. There are also Vice-Corporals

The admission of Attendants (*frequentanten*) can only be allowed without prejudice to the claims of candidates from the Upper Military Houses of Education and from places of private education.

Pupils who come direct from private education must, if they propose to enter one of the Scientific School Companies, be at least 4 feet 10 inches;\* if one of the other School Companies, at least 4 feet 8 inches high. And these and the Attendant pupils alike must at their entrance into the School Companies pass an examination in the subjects of instruction taught in the Upper Houses of Education.

A perfect knowledge of German is accordingly an indispensable condition for reception into the School Companies, and can only in the single case of the Marine School Company be under certain circumstances overlooked.

At his entrance into the School Company every pupil takes the military oath, and is from this day bound to eight years' service in the Standing Army, and two years' service in the Reserve.

Each School Company is commanded by a Captain; each School Squadron by a Captain of Cavalry.

They have attached to them for purposes of instruction and discipline,—

In each Infantry School Company,.....	3	Subaltern Officers.
“ School Squadron,.....	3	“
“ Frontier School Company,.....	6	“
“ Artillery “.....	6	“
In the Engineer “.....	6	“
“ Pioneer “.....	6	“
“ Flotilla “.....	4	“
“ Naval “.....	4	“

Each institution is provided also with four Sergeants as teachers, together with a requisite number of additional persons required for management, discipline, and service.

Religious superintendence and instruction is intrusted to a local Ecclesiastic, and the medical duties to an Army Surgeon.

Scholars in the School Companies are to receive a practical as well as a theoretical training. This is to be regulated according to the branch of the service for which they are detained.

Each of the Infantry School Companies consists of 120 pupils, divided into two years, the subjects of instruction being—

1. Religious Knowledge.
2. One of the National Languages.
3. Geography and History of the Austrian State.
4. Arithmetic.
5. Elements of Geometry.
6. Military Correspondence and Management of the Internal

(Lance Corporals,) with the badge but without the pay of Sergeants, and *gros Feldwebels* or Honorary Sergeants, with the badge but without the pay of Sergeants.

\* The Austrian foot or shoe (*schuh*) of 12 inches (*sohl*) is a little longer than the English: 80 Austrian make 83 English.



Affairs of a Company.\* 7. Pioneer Service.† 8. Knowledge of the Arms of the Infantry. 9. Rules and Regulations. 10. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 11. Calligraphy. 12. Military Drawing. 13. Gymnastics, Fencing, and Swimming.

After the close of the course the pupils who have done remarkably well enter the Infantry as Corporals, the pupils who have done well as Exempts, with the corporal's badge; those who have done moderately, as Exempts; and those who have done either remarkably well, or well, will be, without further examination, named as Cadets; as soon as they pay down the sum required for outfit, or prove their legitimate claim to exemption from this outlay, they themselves being consenting parties.

The arrangements of the School Squadrons, with a number of 60 pupils in each, are analogous to those of the School Companies, special attention only being given to instruction in riding and practical exercise in the Cavalry service; for which purpose each Squadron is provided with 71 horses.

The first of the School Squadrons forms a Regiment of Dragoons, the second one of Lancers, and the third one of Hussars.

The subjects taught are as follows:—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. One of the National Languages. 3. Arithmetic.
4. Elements of Geometry. 5. Geography and History of Austria. 6. Military Correspondence, and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Squadron. 7. Knowledge of Cavalry Arms. 8. Rules and Regulations. 9. Rules of Cavalry Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 10. Knowledge of Horses and Grooming, of Bridling, Saddling, and Shoeing. 11. Calligraphy. 12. Military Drawing. 13. Riding. 14. Gymnastics, Fencing, and Swimming.

On leaving, the pupils enter the Cavalry in the grades corresponding to those mentioned above for the Infantry.

The Frontier School Companies, each of 120 pupils, give three yearly courses.

In all essential points, these institutions are organized on the same plan with the Infantry School Companies. As, however, Officers and Non-commissioned Officers on the Military Frontiers are also intrusted with the general administration, and accordingly require of necessity a knowledge of political administration, of jurisprudence, and agriculture, the range of the plan of study in the Frontier School Companies is more extensive.

The following subjects are taught:—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. The Wallachian or Illyrian Language. 3. Aus-

\* *Manipulation.* See the account of the visits to the School Companies.

† This includes pontooning.

‡ Cadets in a regiment, *i. e.* candidates for a commission, like those appointed on the nomination of the colonels.

trian Geography and History. 4. Arithmetic and Algebra. 5. Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, and Practical Mensuration. 6. Military Correspondence and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Company. 7. Arms and Munitions. 8. Pioneer Service, Road and Bridge Making. 9. Elements of Civil Architecture. 10. Agriculture. 11. Frontier Law and Administration. 12. Rules and Regulations. 13. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 14. Calligraphy. 15. Military Drawing. 16. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming.

The pupils of the Frontier School Companies, at the close of their third year, enter the Frontier Troops, under the conditions already stated in the case of the Infantry School Companies.

The Artillery School Companies have a course of three years, and consist each of 120 scholars (pupils and attendant pupils.)

The subjects of study are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. The Bohemian Language.\* 3. Austrian Geography and History. 4. Arithmetic and Algebra. 5. Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, and Practical Mensuration. 6. Popular Mechanics, First Elements of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. 7. Military Correspondence and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Battery or Company; Computation of Estimates. 8. Artillery. 9. Field Fortification. 10. Elements of Permanent Fortification; Attack and Defense of Fortresses. 11. Rules and Regulations. 12. Rules of Drill and Exercise. 13. Calligraphy. 14. Military Drawing. 15. Elements of Descriptive Geometry. 16. Grooming, Stable Duty, Harnessing. 17. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming.

After the close of the complete course, pupils who have done remarkably well enter the Artillery as Corporals, those who do well as Bombardiers, the others as Upper Cannoneers.

The most distinguished scholars, however, pass at the close of their second year into the Artillery Academy, free of cost, as Attendant Pupils (*frequentanten*), with the rank of Lance-Corporals, to receive there the education which will fit them for the rank of officers.

The Engineer School Company contains 120 scholars, distributed in three yearly courses. The subjects taught are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. Austrian History and Geography. 3. Arithmetic and Algebra. 4. Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, Practical Mensuration. 5. Military Correspondence and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Company. 6. Pioneer Service. 7. Sapping and Mining. 8. Elements of Permanent Fortification. 9. Civil Architecture. 10. Arms and Munitions. 11. Rules and Regulations. 12. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 13. Calligraphy. 14. Military Drawing. 15. Architectural Drawing. 16. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming.

The scholars enter the Corps of Engineers in the same way as has been described in the case of the other School Companies; the most distinguished passing as Attendant Pupils with the rank of Lance-Corporals, free of cost, into the Academy of Engineers.

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\* Because of the large number of Bohemians in the Artillery.

The Pioneer School Company also contains 120 scholars, similarly divided into three yearly courses.

The instruction given is similar to that of the Engineer School Company, special attention being paid to pioneering duties.

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. The Bohemian Language. 3. Austrian History and Geography. 4. Arithmetic and Algebra. 5. Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, and Practical Mensuration. 6. Popular Mechanics. 7. Military Correspondence and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Company. 8. Land Pioneering. 9. Water Pioneering.\* 10. Arms and Munitions. 11. Rules and Regulations. 12. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 13. Calligraphy. 14. Elements of Descriptive Geometry. 15. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming.

After the close of the third year, the scholars enter the Corps of Pioneers, under the various conditions already described. Scholars who specially distinguish themselves will at the close of the second year be received, free of cost, as Attendant Pupils (*frequentanten*) in the Academy of Engineers; and after completing the four years' course there, be distributed as Officers in the Corps of Pioneers.

The number of scholars in the Flotilla School Company is 60; and the course of instruction three years in length. The subjects are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. Italian. 3. Austrian History and Geography. 4. Arithmetic and Algebra. 5. Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, Practical Mensuration. 6. Popular Mechanics. 7. Military Correspondence, and Management of the Internal Affairs of a Company. 8, 9, 10. Flotilla Navigation, Artillery, and Pioneering. 11. Rules and Regulations. 12. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 13. Calligraphy. 14. Military Drawing. 15. Elements of Descriptive Geometry. 16. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming, and Boating.

The most distinguished scholars are sent, free of charge, at the end of the second year, to the Artillery Academy, and after completing the four years there, enter the Flotilla Corps as Officers. The others leave at the end of three years under conditions similar to those already described.

The Marine School Company contains 150 pupils, and its course of instruction lasts four years.

The subjects are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. German. 3. Italian. 4. Illyrian. 5. Natural History. 6. Geography and History. 7. Arithmetic. 8. Algebra. 9. Geometry and Plane Trigonometry. 10. Popular Mechanics. 11. Military Correspondence and Management of the Affairs of a Company. 12. Artillery, Arms, and Munitions. 13. Rules and Regulations, by Land and Sea. 14. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring. 15. Calligraphy. 16. Common Drawing and Machine Drawing. 17. Military Drawing. 18. Gymnastics, Fencing, Swimming.

The pupils will also be thoroughly exercised in boat manœuvring,

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\* Pontooning being included in the duties of the Pioneers.

in the use of sails, and of cannons, and after the end of each year's examination, will pass some weeks on board a sailing vessel for practice.

Pupils who either through want of capacity or of diligence fall behind in the theoretical instruction, will at the end of the second year be sent on board ship as ship's boys (*Schiffs-junga*.)

The other scholars go through the courses of the third and fourth year, and then pass, on the same plan as in the Infantry School Companies, into the Marine Infantry, or as Marine Artillerymen or as Engineering pupils\* of the first class, into the Navy, or into the Arsenal Works Company, to devote themselves to Naval Architecture.

The best scholars enter after four years instruction as Attendant Pupils in the Artillery Academy, and after completing their time there are admitted as Second Lieutenants of the second class into the Marine Artillery.

#### B. SCHOOLS FOR OFFICERS.

##### 1. The Cadet Institutions.

The object of these is to prepare pupils for the instruction in military science given in the Academies.

They are four in number, with 200 pupils in each.

They contain military or treasury places, either wholly or half gratuitous; places on provincial and private foundations; and finally places for paying pupils.

The exact number of places open to pupils on provincial and private foundations, and to paying pupils, can not be determined, as in this respect the Cadet Schools form a single whole with the Academies, and the amount can only be fixed as a total for these institutions taken together. There are altogether 1,100 of these military places, which may be distributed in varying proportions amongst the Cadet Schools and the Academies; the number in any one of them can not be stated as a rule.

The military foundations are reserved for the sons of Officers serving or having served with the sword; the entirely gratuitous places for the sons of Officers in want, and the half gratuitous places for those of Officers provided with means of their own, or serving in higher positions.

Officers employed in the Outfit Department, Remounting† De-

\* The Marine Infantry do not serve like our Marines on board ship, but only on the coast. The Marine Artillery and the Engineering pupils (*Maschinen-lehrlinge*) serve on board.

† For the Outfit Department (*Monture Commission*), see a previous Note. The business

partment, the Department of Military Law and Jurisdiction\* are thus excluded, unless they have previously served with the sword. But for the sons of these Officers, of the Military Judges, the Military Surgeons, and other Officials, having attained the eleventh or any higher allowance class,† there will be reserved eight entirely and eight half gratuitous places in the Cadet Schools and the Academies.

Appointments to the military and provincial foundations are granted by His Majesty, the former on the recommendation of the Supreme War Department, the latter on that of the Minister of the Interior. Among the former are included, as already stated, the most distinguished pupils of the Lower Houses of Education, for whose transfer to the Cadet Schools the rules are laid down, the recommendation being annually submitted for His Majesty's approval.

Special regard will be given to candidates whose fathers have been killed or invalided in the field; after these, to those who are orphans on both sides; to the sons of Officers of special merit, of Officers with large families, and the like.

Appointments upon provincial and private foundations, or as paying pupils, will be made in the manner already stated in the general account of the Educational Institutions.

The age of admission is the eleventh year completed, and twelfth year not exceeded, and the candidate will be expected to know the subject of instruction prescribed for the third class of the common (*normal*) schools.

A knowledge of German, however, will not be considered indispensable. Pupils who are not Germans will receive in the first half year of the first course special instruction in German.

The instruction continues during four yearly courses. The command is held by a Field Officer, assisted by—

- 1 Subaltern Officer as Adjutant.
- 2 Captains.
- 10 Subaltern Officers.
- 2 Ecclesiastical Professors.
- 1 Accountant.

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of the Remounting Department or Remounting Establishments (*Remontirungs Anstalten*) is to supply the cavalry with horses. There are several of these great establishments for buying and breeding horses; the largest of all is in Galicia.

\* *Auditoriat*.—There is an Auditor or Military Judge in each regiment. He has passed through his course as a law student, and declared for this branch. In every province there is a central department. These law officials rise through all the grades from Lieutenant up to General.

† One of the marks of superior rank is the amount granted for *allowances*, for which there is a carefully graduated scale.

- 1 Army Surgeon.
- 1 Surgeon's Assistant.
- 12 Sergeants for Inspection.
- 4 Orderlies, together with the requisite number of mechanics and servants.

The subjects of instruction are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. German Language and Art of Speaking. 3. French. 4. Natural History. 5. Geography. 6. History. 7. Arithmetic. 8. Algebra. 9. Geometry and Plane Trigonometry. 10. Rules of Drill and Exercise. 11. Calligraphy. 12. Common Drawing. 13. Gymnastics, Single-stick, Swimming.

Those pupils who satisfactorily complete their four years' course are transferred, according to their capacities, and as far as possible, to their own wishes, into one of the Military Academies. Entrance into the Marine Academy takes place at the close of the second year.

Pupils who do ill, will, at the close of any one of the three first years, be removed into the course of the following year at one of the Upper Houses of Education; or, at the close of the fourth year, into one of the Infantry School Companies.

This removal, in the case of paying pupils, will be dependent on the consent of the parents; failing which, they will be sent back home.

## 2. *The Military Academies.*

The object in these is to educate Officers in the higher military subjects for the different arms of the service.

There are four Academies; the Neustadt Academy, the Artillery Academy, the Engineers' Academy, and the Marine Academy.

The scholars in each are divided into four yearly courses of nearly equal numbers. In the Neustadt Academy each year is sub-divided into two parallel classes, the instruction being the same in both.

The pupils in the Military Academies are of the different kinds described in the account of the Cadet Houses, and the appointments similarly made; the Academies and the Cadet Houses in these respects forming a single body.

Candidates for admission into the Neustadt Academy, the Artillery Academy, or the Engineers' Academy, must be nearly, if not quite, fifteen, and not above sixteen years old. For admission into the Marine Academy, they must be nearly, if not quite, thirteen, not above fourteen years old.

The Academies receive their pupils in the first instance from the Cadet Schools, after the satisfactory completion of the fourth (or, in the case of the Marine Academy, the second) year, and then, as



already stated under the head of the School Companies, from the Artillery School Companies, and from the Engineer, Pioneer, Flotilla, and Marine School Companies, after the highly satisfactory completion of the second (or, in the Marine School, of the fourth) year.

Pupils from these School Companies, before entering the Academies, will take the Military Oath,\* receive the rank of Lance-Corporals, and be admitted free of charge as Attendant Pupils into the Academies, to receive their education for the rank of Officer. Scholars from the general body of soldiers, who are attending the School Companies, are to be treated, in respect of their transfer to the Academies, in the same way as the other pupils.\*

Entrance into the Academies is confined to the commencement of the first year.† Pupils admitted from places of private instruction are examined in the subjects taught in the Cadet Schools; those who wish to enter the Neustadt, the Artillery or Engineers' Academy, in the following subjects, to the extent here described:—

1. German:—The Art of Speaking; Prosody; the Rules of Speaking; the various Rhetorical Styles.
2. Natural History:—General knowledge of the Three Kingdoms.
3. French:—General grammatical rules; Translation from German into French.
4. Geography.
5. History:—Ancient and of the Middle Ages.
6. Geometry and Rectilinear Trigonometry, with the Application of Algebra, and the Solution of Geometrical Problems.
7. Common Drawing.

Candidates for the Marine Academy will be required to know,—

1. The German Grammar, including Syntax.
2. Zoölogy.
3. French:—The Auxiliary Verbs; the Four Conjugations; Reading.
4. General Geography.
5. Ancient History.
6. Arithmetic and Algebra as far (inclusively) as Equations of the First Degree, with two unknown Quantities.
7. Common Drawing.

Candidates from both institutions must also possess the degree of religious knowledge corresponding to their age, and must write a good current hand.

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\* In the School Companies there are two different sets of Scholars, those who have come from the Houses of Education or from private schools, and those who attend after two years' service in the Army. These are *frequentanten* in the School Companies, but all alike, who come from the School Companies, are *frequentanten* in the Academies.

† It appears, however, that a transfer of pupils, for example, from the Engineers' Academy to Wiener Neustadt, in consequence of incapacity for Mathematics, is allowed at a later standing. After passing a year at Znaim, a young man may enter the second year's course at Neustadt.

Pupils who are found negligent in the course of their academical studies, will at the close of the first, second, or third year be transferred to the classes corresponding to their age in the School Companies, or will be enlisted in the Army as Cadets if they possess the requisite bodily qualifications, in the manner already described.\*

*The Neustadt Academy.*

Wiener Neustadt having been the seat of this Academy for more than a century, the ancient name thence derived will be retained in its usual acceptation, though the Academies for the Artillery and the Engineers will also be placed in the same locality. The institution counts 400 pupils, designed primarily for the Infantry of the Line and of the Frontier, and secondly, for the Chasseurs and the Cavalry.

The Director of the Academy is a Colonel or General, attached to whom, for purposes of instruction, discipline, and general management, there are three field and thirty-four other Officers; for religious care and instruction, four Ecclesiastics; for medical attention, one Regimental Surgeon, one Army Surgeon, and one Surgeon's Assistant; for the accounts, one Accountant, and four Accountant's Assistants. The large number of pupils maintained in the institution requires, moreover, a proportionately large staff for superintendence, a numerous body of attendants, servants, and the like; so that the whole number to be added to that of the pupils does not fall short of 300 persons; 64 horses are allowed for the riding lessons.

The plan of study is based on that of the Cadet Schools, and embraces the following subjects:—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. French. 3. Italian. 4. Bohemian. 5. Hungarian. 6. Logic and Psychology. 7. Geography. 8. History. 9. Analytical Geometry and Higher Analytical Mathematics. 10. Mechanics, Spherical Trigonometry, Mathematical Geography, Triangulation. 11. Natural Philosophy, Elements of Chemistry. 12. Practical Mensuration, taking Maps at Sight. 13. Descriptive Geometry. 14. Military Composition. 15. Positive International Law, † Austrian Civil Law (*Privat Recht*). 16. Military Penal Law and Procedure. 17. Pioneer Service, with Field Fortification. 18. Permanent Fortification. 19. Civil Architecture. 20. Arms and Munitions. 21. Study of Ground and Positions, and Military Drawing. 22. Rules and Regulations, and Military Administration. 23. Rules of Infantry Drill and Exercise. 24. Rules of Cavalry Drill and Exercise. 25. Manœuvring. 26. Riding. 27. Gymnastics. 28. Fencing. 29. Dancing. 30. Swimming.

Pupils who show a talent for general drawing will be practiced in it.

\*The wishes of the parents are, of course, consulted in the case of paying pupils, but it is said that their consent is very generally given.

† The Law of Nations as it exists *de facto* without consideration of its principles.

After the completion of the fourth year's course, the pupils will be recommended by the Supreme War Department to His Majesty for nomination as Second Lieutenants of the second class.

In their distribution into the various regiments, &c., of the army, the choice of the pupils will, as far as possible, be considered.

The pupils upon leaving will be, without exception, fully equipped at the expense of the State. Only in the case of the pupils who wish to enter the Cavalry, the parents (or guardians) will be called upon to give security for the payment of 1,000 florins (100*l.*) towards the expenses of the first equipment, and for a monthly allowance of 25 florins (2*l.* 10*s.*)

### 3. *The Artillery and Engineers' Academy.*

The arrangements of these two Academies are in many respects similar, as required by the character of the two kindred sciences for which they are founded.

The number of scholars is fixed at 160 pupils, and 40 attendant pupils (*Frequentanten*) in each.

The command in each is intrusted to a General or a Colonel.

For the smaller number of scholars, fewer instructors, superintendents, and attendants are needed; the complete amount in each Academy is fixed at 200 men, in addition to the scholars. Each has thirty-two horses allowed to it.

The plan of instruction is in many respects identical in each.

The subjects taught in both are—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. French. 3. Italian.\* 4. Logic and Psychology. 5. Geography. 6. History. 7. Analytical Geometry and Higher Analytical Mathematics. 8. Descriptive Geometry. 9. Mechanics and the Elements of the Study of Machinery. 10. Mathematical Geography. 11. Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. 12. Practical Mensuration, taking Plans at Sight. 13. Military Composition. 14. International Law; Austrian Civil Law. 15. Military Penal Law and Penal Procedure. 16. Military Drawing; Study of Ground and Positions. 17. Rules and Regulations, and Military Administration. 18. Riding. 19. Gymnastics. 20. Fencing. 21. Dancing. 22. Swimming.

Common drawing will be treated, as it is at the Neustadt Academy, as an optional subject.

In the Artillery Academy the following additional subjects will be taught;—

1. Bohemian.† 2. Field Fortification and Permanent Fortification. 3. Tactics of the Three Arms. 4. Artillery. 5. Sieges, Construction of Batteries; Artillery. 6. Rockets. 7. Rules of Drill and Exercise in the Artillery and

\* This is at present, in point of fact, omitted for want of time.

† The Artillery is recruited very largely from Bohemia and Moravia. A knowledge of the Bohemian language (which is pretty nearly the same as Moravian) is therefore essential for an Officer in the command of Artillerymen.

Infantry. 8. Instruction in shoeing horses, in judging of their Age, in judging of them at Sight, in Bridling, Saddling, and Grooming.

In the Academy of the Engineers the additional subjects are—

1. Arms and Munitions and Artillery. 2. Art of Fortification. 3, 4. Civil Architecture, Plain and Ornamental. 5. Pioneer Service. 6. Rules of Drill, Exercise, and Manœuvring.

The pupils of the two Academies enter in the same way as those at Neustadt, after the satisfactory completion of four years' instruction, with the rank of Second Lieutenant of the Second Class, the respective services of the Artillery, and of the Engineers or Pioneers. Pupils for whom no vacancies can be found enter the Infantry.

#### 4. *The Marine Academy.*

This, like the other Academies, is in the charge of a Field Officer, or a General.

The pupils are 100 in number; the Teachers, other Officers, and attendants, 88.

One essential distinction here (explained by the necessity of habituating the pupils to the sea) is the admission at an age earlier by two years, and the proportionally earlier termination of the course.

The plan of instruction combines a continuation of the studies prescribed in the Cadet Schools, with the commencement of those specially required for the marine service, viz:—

1. Religious Knowledge. 2. German. 3. Italian. 4. French. 5. English. 6. Geography. 7. History. 8. Algebra. 9. Geometry and Plane Trigonometry. 10. Analytical Geometry and Higher Analytical Mathematics. 11. Spherical Trigonometry and Nautical Astronomy. 12. Mechanics and Natural Philosophy. 13. Descriptive Geometry. 14. Navigation. 15. Military Composition. 16. International Law, Austrian Civil Law, Sea Law. 17. Military Penal Law, and Penal Procedure. 18. Artillery. 19. Fortification, Attack and Defense of Coast Fortifications. 20. Naval Tactics and Naval History. 21. Knowledge of Rigging, &c. (*Takelungslehre*.) 22. Naval Manœuvres. 23. Naval Architecture. 24. Signals. 25. Rules and Regulations. 26. Rules of Drill and Exercise. 27. Calligraphy. 28. Military Drawing. 29. Common Drawing. 30. Swimming. 31. Gymnastics. 32. Fencing. 33. Dancing.

In addition to the practical instruction given in the course of the school year, the pupils of the three first years will in the months of August and September be sent in sailing vessels on a voyage for practice.

The pupils at the end of four years enter as Cadets into the Navy, the Flotilla Corps, or the Corps of Naval Architecture.

After completing a practical course of two years, they will receive their promotion as Second Lieutenants of the second class.\*

### C. SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

#### 1. *The Military Teachers' School.*

The object here is a double one; first, to bring up good and serviceable teachers in the subjects of study prescribed for the Military Houses of Education; secondly to provide at the same time instructors in gymnastics and fencing for all the military schools and for the troops. The institution accordingly consists of two departments, each of thirty Attendant Pupils, receiving instruction in these two different branches.

Non-commissioned Officers are admitted after a service of at least two years. Candidates for admission into the Teachers' department must, in addition, possess the required amount of knowledge in the subjects taught in the Military Houses of Education; and, as a rule, must know, besides German, one other of the Austrian national languages. Proficiency in every one of the subjects will not be considered essential. Candidates for admission to the Gymnastic and Fencing Department will be required to show a certain amount of readiness in the use of arms and in gymnastic exercises, and an evident capacity for acquiring greater skill.

Registration for admission is to be obtained in the usual course of the service from the Supreme War Department.

The Attendant Pupils receive, in addition to their ordinary pay, bread and the extra allowance; and for their better subsistence also an allowance corresponding to that granted for provision during a march.

The command is held by a Field Officer or Captain; six Subaltern Officers and four Sergeants act as teachers, the latter as assistants in the instruction in fencing and gymnastics, and as swimming master. The instructor in the art and methods of teaching may be a civilian.

The subjects of instruction in the Teachers' Department are—

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\* Literally, "as *Frigate-Ensign*, or Second Lieutenant of the second class," the former being in rank the same as the latter. The order of rank is,—

Captain	of a Man-of-War	equal to a Colonel in the Army.
"	of a Frigate	Lieutenant Colonel ditto.
"	of a Corvette	Major ditto.
Lieutenant of a Man-of-War	"	First Captain ditto.
"	of a Frigate	Second Captain ditto.
Ensign in a Man-of-War	"	First Lieutenant ditto.
"	in a Frigate	Second Lieutenant ditto.

In the Corps of Naval Architecture the ordinary military titles are used.

1. The Art and Methods of Teaching. 2. German. 3. Another Austrian Language. 4. Arithmetic and Geometry. 5. Geography. 6. Military Composition, and the Management of the Internal Affairs of a Company. 7. Calligraphy. 8. Common and Military Drawing. 9. Gymnastics, Fencing, and Swimming.

**In the Gymnastic Department,—**

1. Staff, Rapier, Sword, and Bayonet Fencing. 2. Gymnastics and Swimming. 3. Knowledge of Fire-arms.

In both Departments a certain number of hours weekly will be devoted to Military Exercise.

Instruction in all the subjects will be given with special reference to the methods to be pursued in teaching them in the various Military Schools.

The course in each Department lasts one year. Under certain circumstances particular pupils in the Teachers' Department may remain for the further completion of their studies a second year in the institution.

In the Teachers' Department, pupils who show no aptitude or liking for some particular subject, may be exempted from attending the lessons given in it, so as to allow them to give more thorough attention to other branches.

After passing the examination, the pupils are either sent immediately to undertake duty in the Military Schools, or return to their service in the troops, and pass, as occasion requires, into the Military Schools. Corporals who distinguish themselves by remarkably good progress will be promoted to the rank of Sergeant.

**2. The United Higher Course for the Artillery and Engineers,**

Has for its object the more advanced instruction of young Officers in a scientific and technical point of view, for service in the Artillery and Engineers.

Twenty Officers, of more than usual capacity, between twenty-one and twenty-six years of age, will be admitted from each of the two arms. They must be unmarried, and must have served with distinction during a period of not less than two years.

Officers in whose cases these conditions are satisfied, and who desire to be admitted to the course, apply for registration for admission to the examination, in the ordinary form, to the War Department.

Officers who, in the month of October, are summoned to attend, may charge their traveling expenses to the Treasury, and undergo an examination before the Professors attached to the Course, in the following subjects:—



1. Analytical Geometry and Higher Analytical Mathematics. 2. Mechanics and the Elements of the Study of Machinery. 3. Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. 4. Military Composition. 5. French. 6. Military Drawing, tested by the production of a Drawing of their own doing.

Candidates for the Artillery will be, moreover, examined in the Tactics of the three Arms, and in Artillery; and those from the Engineers, in the Art of Fortification and in Civil Architecture, both Plain and Ornamental.

The text-books used in the Academies of the Artillery and Engineers will serve as a measure for the range of attainment required. Pupils who passed with distinction through these Academies will thus be specially fitted for admission into the Higher Course after they have proved, during their time of service, their diligence in bringing the knowledge they have acquired into actual application.

On the close of this preliminary examination, the results will be submitted to the Supreme War Department, and the recommendations for admission laid before His Majesty.

A superior Field Officer, either of the Artillery or the Engineers, will be intrusted with the charge of the united course. The lectures will be given by the Professors of the Academy of the Artillery and Engineers. From the nature of the duties, partly common and partly distinct, which devolve upon the two corps, it follows that the course of the studies (which will be carried on during two years) will in like manner be partly common and partly separate.

The subjects of common instruction will be—

1. Mechanics in application to Machinery, combined with Machine Drawing.
2. Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, combined with practice in manipulation, in making experiments, and in analyzing.
3. Theory of Artillery, in reference to the constructions that occur in Artillery.
4. Higher Tactics.
5. Principles of Strategy, illustrated by the representation of campaigns, with special attention to the use of Artillery, as well in Attack and Defense of fortified places, as in the field.

Separate instruction will be given to Artillery Officers in—

1. Service in Workshops, Depôts, and Arsenal.
2. Knowledge of Foreign Artillery, of the requisites (*ausrüstungen*) for Field service and Sieges, and for furnishing fortified places.

To Engineer Officers, in—

1. Ornamental Architecture, combined with Architectural Drawing.
2. The Art of Fortification, special attention being given to working out projects.

The pupils receive in addition practical guidance and supervision in all subjects of a scientific nature connected with the Art of War.

The pupils of the second year undergo an examination in October. Upon the results of the examination the War Department decides on their promotion for the rank of Second to that of First Lieutenants.

### 3. *The War or Staff School.*

The object of the War School is to give Officers of all arms an education for higher duties, especially for those of the Staff and of the Upper Adjutant Department.\*

Any Subaltern Officer of the active army, without distinction of arms, may claim admission into the War School, provided he is above twenty-one and under twenty-six years old, is unmarried, and has served as Officer uninterruptedly and with distinction two years at least with the troops, and, provided, finally, he has passed the prescribed preliminary examination.

For admission to the examination, registration, to be obtained in the usual form from the War Department, is requisite.

The examination is conducted between October 10th and 20th, in the War School buildings; the registered candidates will be summoned to Vienna at the beginning of October; traveling expenses will be paid by the Treasury. The subjects are—

1. Algebra and Geometry, including Plane and Spherical Trigonometry.
2. Geography.
3. History.
4. Arms and Munitions.
5. Field and Permanent Fortification.
6. Pioneer Service.
7. Rules of Drill and Exercise (in detail, for the arm in which the candidate has served, and generally for the other arms.)
8. Manœuvring.
9. Military drawing, tested by the production of a drawing of the candidate's own doing.
10. Military Composition, tested by working out an exercise in the presence of the Commission.
11. French.
- And finally, 12, the candidate must be able to speak one of the national languages of the Austrian Empire, Slavonic, Hungarian, or Italian, and must write a good current and legible hand.

The amount of knowledge required in these subjects will be regulated by the range of the text-books prescribed for use in the Academy at Neustadt. Regard, however, will not so much be given to the minutiae of knowledge possessed by the candidate, but rather to the evidence of his having a correct judgment and quick apprehension, and the power of expressing himself both orally and in writing.

Upon the results of the examination, formally drawn up by the authorities of the school, recommendations for admission will be submitted to the sanction of His Majesty.

The number of attendants in the War School is fixed at thirty, and the length of course is two years.

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\* The Higher Adjutantur or the Aide-de-Camp Department.

The attending pupils receive, in addition to their ordinary pay, a monthly allowance of twenty florins, rations, and allowance for two horses; when employed in taking surveys and reconnoitring, they have an extra allowance of thirty florins monthly.

The War School is commanded by a General or Superior Field Officer.

Five Field Officers or Captains, taken as a rule from the Staff, give lectures on the prescribed scientific subjects. One Field Officer or Captain of Cavalry takes the duty of riding-master; and one civil Professor that of instruction in the French language and literature. Necessary officers, attendants, and servants take the duty of adjutants, of the internal management, of the service, and of attending to the thirty horses.

The first year's subjects of instruction are—

1. Military Drawing and the study of Ground and Positions.
2. Higher Tactics.
3. Staff and Superior Adjutant Duty.
4. French Language and Literature.
5. Riding.

Those of the second year,—

1. Military Drawing, Ground and Positions.
2. Military Geography.
3. Principles of Strategy, illustrated by representations of some of the most instructive campaigns.
4. French Language and Literature.
5. Riding.

The course begins on the 1st of November, and lasts to the end of September.

The Attendants at the War School must be practiced in those arms in which they have not served. They are for this purpose distributed into the various bodies of troops forming the garrison of Vienna, go through the exercises and manœuvres of these troops—in the first year with one, and in the second with the other arm. At the termination of these periods of practice, they will be called upon to undertake the command of a Battery, of a Squadron of Cavalry, and of a Division of Infantry.

In the month of May, the attendant pupils of the first year will go out upon a course of practical surveying; those of the second year will be similarly employed in reconnoitring, choosing sites for encampment, discovering, judging of, and describing proper points for taking up positions, forming *têtes-de-pont*, entrenched camps, and the like, and in performing other duties falling within the service of the Staff.

At the beginning of October, the pupils of the second year will undergo an examination, which will be conducted both orally and by papers.

Upon the results of this the Supreme War Department will determine upon their promotion to the rank of First Lieutenants (if they are not already of that rank,) and this without any reference to their previous position, their position henceforth being simply determined by their merit.

The same grounds determine the cases of those who are admitted to the Staff, or who return to their respective arms.

Those who, after a satisfactory completion of the course, return to service with the troops, will, after three years' meritorious service, be specially recommended for extraordinary promotion.

#### *Control of the Institutions.*

The Upper and Lower Houses of Education, the Infantry School Companies, the Cavalry School Squadrons, and the Frontier School Companies, are under the orders of the Commanders of the Army, the Army Corps, or the military government in whose district they are situated. The Artillery and Engineer School Companies are under the orders of the General Artillery and Engineer Departments; the Pioneer and Flotilla School Companies, under those of the Quartermaster-General's Department; the Marine School Company, under those of the Admiralty. Which functionaries, however, receive from the Supreme War Department all directions relating to organization and instruction.

The Cadet Schools, the Academies, the Military Teachers' School, the Upper Artillery and Engineer Course, and the War School, are immediately under the orders of the Supreme War Department.

The general organization of all the military schools and places of instruction is once for all established by the regulations sanctioned by His Majesty. These regulations contain all that concerns the physical, moral, and intellectual training of the pupils, and all have the one object of rearing them up as worthy members of the Austrian army, and faithful supporters of the throne and of the honor of their country.

#### III. REMARKS ON THE AUSTRIAN MILITARY EDUCATION.

The English Commissioners in their General "*Report on the Education and Training of Officers for the Scientific Corps*" hold the following language:—

The magnitude of the Military Education of Austria entitles it to rank among the chief Institutions of the Empire. It has been remodeled since the wars of 1848, 1849. It is now centralized, and wholly directed by one of the four Co-ordinate Sections of the War

Office, which is independent of the others, and reports directly to the Emperor. This Educational or "Fourth" Section has the control of between 300,000*l.* and 400,000*l.* yearly. It provides for the free or nearly free education of more than 5,000 pupils. The extent and completeness of the system will be best understood by a reference to the clear and valuable official account of the schools.\*

The military schools are divided by this document into (1) those which educate pupils for *Non-commissioned Officers*, (2) those which educate for *Officers*, (3) and those *Senior Schools* which complete the education and extend the instruction of both classes. The method of training *Non-commissioned Officers* is a peculiar and remarkable part of the system.

1. No less than 5,730 pupils are in process of being educated for *Non-commissioned Officers*. They are received into a Military School at seven years old, and at that early age are devoted to the army, with a kind of solemnity, by their fathers, somewhat similar to the practice at Woolwich Academy:—"I hereby pledge myself to surrender up my son to the Imperial Military Service, in case of his being admitted into a Military Educational Institution, and I will under no pretext require his return." This promise, as the official document states, may no doubt be recalled if the youth finds that he has mistaken his vocation; but it must exercise great influence (and such is its avowed object) in retaining him in it.

After passing successively through two Junior Institutions,—the Lower Houses of Education, where he continues till eleven years old, and the Upper Houses, where he remains till fifteen,—the boy receives his finishing course in one of what are termed the School Companies, the highest class of schools for training boys to become *Non-commissioned Officers* in all arms of the service. These are twenty in number, and scattered over the whole Empire, containing generally 120 pupils each, though in one case only sixty; and with a course of either two or three years, according to the nature of the service. The extent and the requirements of the Empire give a striking variety to their character. Thus, in the frontier School Companies, "the range of the studies is more extensive, because the *Non-commissioned Officers* on the Military Frontiers are intrusted with the general administration, and require of necessity a knowledge of Political Administration, of Jurisprudence, and Agriculture;" and thus also the *Non-commissioned Officers* for the responsible Flotilla Service of the mouths of the great rivers, the lagoons of the Po, the head of the Adriatic, and the lakes, are carefully

\* See *Ante*, p. 412—441.

educated and frequently promoted. Following the course of a pupil through these Upper Houses and School Companies, we were much struck by the sensible and vigorous character of the education, and the motives supplied for exertion. In the Upper Houses the boys compete for entrance to the School Companies which they prefer, and the more scientific companies are a special object of ambition, because it is more usual in these for young men to be raised by their talents to the Academies, and thus made Officers, "free of all cost:" according to the regulations, however, this is possible in all. It may be stated that from six to ten pupils from each of the more scientific School Companies,—the Artillery, Engineer, Pioneer, Flotilla, and Marine Companies,—are yearly transferred to the Academies, to complete their education there for the Officer's Commission.

A system of this kind, supplying at once a good education and large opportunities of advancement, must necessarily operate as a great encouragement to young men educating for Non-commissioned Officers; and allowing for the social differences of the two countries, it resembles in spirit the French system, which throws open the gates of the Polytechnic and St. Cyr, and with them a proportion of the Commissions in the Army, to all.

This, however, is not all. The sums devoted to the education of Non-commissioned Officers, as well as Officers, are immense, and may be regarded as a spontaneous contribution of the National Feeling, no less than a State provision. A system both of public and private foundations (*Stiftungen*) prevails—part derived from the Emperor, part from the provinces, part from private gifts and legacies—by which 3,190 pupils are supported in the Houses of Education and the School Companies, and 1,320 in the Cadet Schools and Academies. The very large majority of these exhibitions supply a *complete*, about 200 a *partial*, maintenance. And it is curious to observe the aid to education which is so common in our own Universities, devoted in Austria to what may be termed the great National Institution—the Army,—and retaining all the limitations to the descendants of Founders or Natives of provinces which marked our own foundations. Some of these exhibitions have been founded by foreign soldiers for their own countrymen. Thus there are two bearing the name of the O'Gara and the O'Brady, to be held by any Irishmen of good family, one of which is in the gift of the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin. We should add that this system is still a living and popular one. Within three years the city of Brünn has founded such an exhibition "for sons of Austrian subjects in Moravia, and by preference in Brünn, in



commemoration of His Majesty's escape from assassination in 1853." We ourselves heard a distinguished Officer express an intention of founding one of these Exhibitions. The comparison with the open *Bourses* of the Polytechnic is remarkable; but the Austrian appointments to free places seem to be given, like the Prussian, solely as rewards for the service of the parent.

2. The education of young men for Officers is conducted upon the same principles which regulate that for Non-commissioned Officers. The age of admission to a Cadet School is about eleven. The pupils are pledged to the service with the same formalities which we have noticed in the Lower Houses of Education. Between fifteen and sixteen they enter one of the Academies for the Line, the Artillery, the Engineers, or the Marine, and after four years they pass to their respective services.

Thus, unlike the French system, that which is followed in Austria commits the pupil to the Army, and to a Military Education, from an early age, resembling herein the plan of the *Accademia Militare* of Turin. But an attempt seems to be made to combine general with special teaching. Thus, although even in the two first years (from fifteen to seventeen,) at Wiener Neustadt, there is some introduction of successful practical military teaching, the chief weight is thrown upon mathematics, history, geography, drawing, and French; special military teaching has a greater, though far from an exclusive place, in the two last years. The studies are high, and (as far as we could judge) pursued carefully, and with excellent discipline.

The description we have given of the system pursued in the Schools for Non-commissioned Officers will have shown that there is a constant appeal to emulation. The same is found at Wiener Neustadt. There is a careful system of assigning credits during the whole school period, which itself argues competition. The chief immediate reward, indeed, is the choice of a regiment on leaving the school; but the prospect of entering the Staff School stands in no distant perspective, and this is filled with so many pupils from Wiener Neustadt, that it must be looked upon as the sure reward of a successful Neustädter. There are other inducements of a different character. The discipline being strict, pupils are constantly removed from Wiener Neustadt and the other Academies to the schools for Non-commissioned Officers, and though sometimes allowed to enter the army as Officers, it must always be as juniors to their contemporaries at Wiener Neustadt. We heard instances of great strictness in this matter.

The new course for the Special Arms in Austria is not yet com-

pletely in operation. It is at present carried on separately in the Academy of Olmütz for the Artillery, and that of Znaim, in Moravia, for the Engineers. There are 200 pupils in each Academy, and the courses of instruction, which are more special or technical than at Wiener Neustadt, last four years, from the age of fifteen to nineteen. The yearly examinations, the manner in which the marks of the monthly examinations tell on the final one, and the careful classification of the pupils in the order of merit, reminded us of the system of the Polytechnic more than any other school we have seen. And an inspection of the very high credits obtained by the first thirty pupils will prove the diligence with which the studies are pursued. We should add that several pupils of marked talents come from the scientific School Companies. A further fact bears witness to the vigor of the discipline. We have alluded to the dismissal of unpromising subjects from the Austrian Military Schools. In the course of three years, since the changes of 1850, it appears that nearly 100 pupils were removed from Znaim, as not coming up to the standard required for the Engineers by the new regulations.

3. The courses of instruction in the three Academies for Infantry and Cavalry, Artillery, and for Engineers, last for the same time, and run (as it were) parallel to each other. Each is, or is to be, completed by a senior department. The United Course for the Artillery and Engineers is not indeed yet combined in the magnificent buildings begun at Wiener Neustadt; but it is already organized in a provisional state at Znaim for the Engineers, and the plan of instruction drawn up is a solid one. The arrangements for the general Staff School require more remark.

In our report upon Austrian schools we have specially noticed this School as remarkable for its thorough and open competitive character from first to last, and its very sensible plan of study. Admission to it is by competition, open to Officers of all arms: the pupils are not unduly overburdened with work; perhaps, there is even room for one or two more subjects of importance; but what is done seems to be done thoroughly; the Officers are carefully ranked, on leaving the School, according as the abilities they have displayed, may be considered a criterion of their fitness for employment on the General Staff; and *in this order* they enter the Staff Corps. The consequence is that every Officer knows distinctly, from the time that he first competes for admission until his final examination on leaving, that the order in which he will enter the Staff depends entirely on his own exertions and success at the school. It seemed

to us that this open competition produced a spirit of confidence and energy in the students, as great, if not greater, than any we met with elsewhere.

The whole of the above system of education is directed by the Fourth Section of the War Department. In all the schools we found traces of its activity; and the energy and system which prevail in the Military Teaching of Austria appear in great measure to result from its being directed by this single head.

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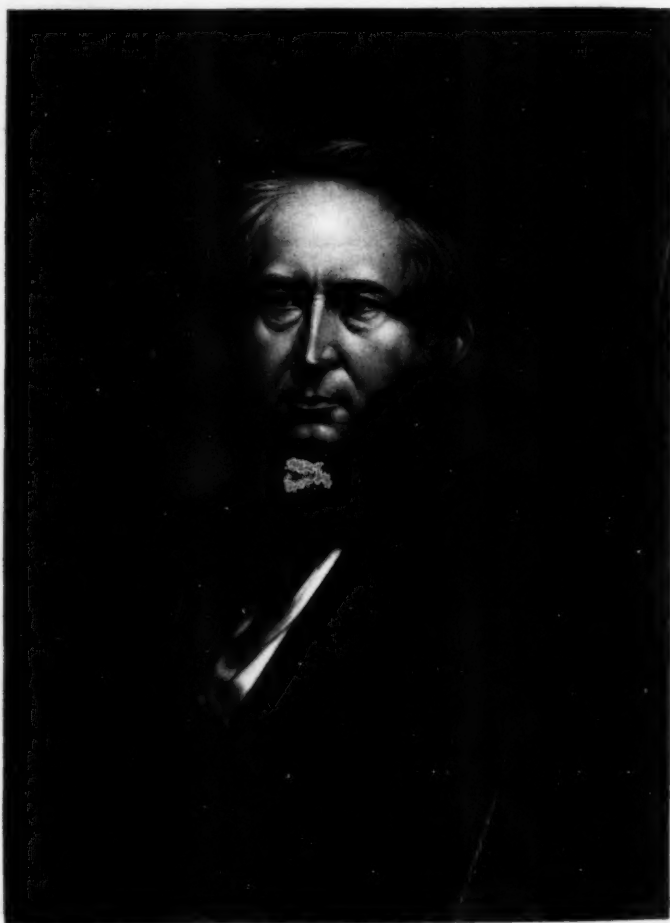
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